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ART. I.—THE STATE OF GEORGIA.*

LAWS, JURISPRUDENCE, MILITIA, EDUCATION, SCHOOLS, ETC.

We will make one or two more remarks about our Supreme Court, and then pass on to another subject. One great difficulty in the way of this judiciary is, that it has to be holden in so many different places. This prevents the state from supplying its judges with a good library, and thus these functionaries are dependent upon the libraries, often incomplete and unsatisfactory, of private members of the bar, for consultation and reference. Under some circumstances, it might be more convenient to parties litigant to have the courts holden in several different places. But when a state, like Georgia, is intersected in every portion by rail-roads, already built or building, and the facilities of access to the capital are so great, it would be better to have Milledgeville as the only place where the court should hold its sessions; and thus, at that place, the state could concentrate, for the benefit of this tribunal, a good public law library, which would conduce much to the ends of public justice. An excellent feature in the law establishing this court is, that every case returned for its consideration must be disposed of at the first term. Business does not, therefore, accumulate on the docket from term to term, and parties are not subjected to those long delays which too often disgrace our higher tribunals.

The laws of Georgia were compiled by Marbury and Crawford, from its earliest settlement as a British province, in 1755, to 1800; and by Augustus S. Clayton, from the year 1800 to the year 1810, inclusive; by L. Q. C. Lamar, from 1810 to 1820, and by William C. Dawson, from 1820 to 1830, inclusive.

* Continued from January Number, 1851. We shall be delighted to receive similar papers in regard to each of the Southern and South-Western States.—[EDITOR.]

Digests of these laws have been made by Prince and Hotchkiss; and an Analysis of the Statutes of Georgia, compiled by Howell Cobb, Esq.

Prince's Digest is the best book on the Statute Law of Georgia that there is. This brings the statutes down only as far as 1837, however. Thirteen years work great changes in the laws of any country in the middle of the nineteenth century, and therefore new digests have been required. Howell Cobb and William Hotchkiss have attempted to supply this requisition. Cobb's Analysis we consider a pretty good book, especially as it contains a great many forms which afford material assistance to the young practitioner.

As to the Digest of Hotchkiss, were it printed on shucks instead of on paper, it might afford good pabulum for oxen; but surely no one would be silly enough to suppose, for a moment, that this *hotch*—not *kiss*—but *potch*—in its present state of rawness, would afford aliment for the mind of a lawyer, whose legal appetite had been whetted by an intense search after some obscure Georgia statute. The book has been utterly repudiated by the profession, and is under perpetual injunction, from which all the *bills* in Christendom can never relieve it. It is consigned to the tomb of the Capulets. *Requiescat in pace!*

The code of penal laws of this state was enacted in 1833, and went into operation on the first day of June, 1834. Some of its provisions have, since that time, been amended, and other sections added. It superseded the code of 1817. The frequent substitution of one system for another—the establishment of a penitentiary, and then its immediate abandonment—indicate a very unsettled state of the popular mind in regard to the different plans. In 1816 the state abandoned the sanguinary criminal laws which had existed, and adopted a new system of pains and penalties, altogether more compatible with the condition of the people, and better suited to the advanced stage of civilization. The discipline of a state prison was then but imperfectly understood, and the changes it effected in the old system, together with a very imperfect execution of the plan, excited a decided distrust, which soon presented itself in open opposition to it. After sixteen years of experience, therefore, it gave way to the earnest opposition which was brought to bear upon it, and the legislature of 1831 abolished it. The state was thrown back upon a code which it had repudiated, and criminal justice was administered according to laws at once odious to humanity, and behind the intelligence of the age. But this condition of things did not last. The change was palpably felt: public opinion again reacted in its favor: a reform was demanded, and the penitentiary was again restored. But the old code, with its flagrant defects, was found inadequate to accomplish the purposes of the new system, and accordingly in 1832 the legislature passed a resolution authorizing the Governor to appoint a committee of three persons to prepare a plan for the penitentiary buildings, digest a system of laws for its organization, and revise and amend the penal laws of the state. The committee appointed by Governor Lumpkins were: William Schley, Joseph H. Lumpkin (now one of

the Supreme Judges,) and John A. Cuthbert; all gentlemen of eminent legal attainments. They reported to the legislature of 1833, and that report is the existing code of penal laws, with some modifications and amendments. This system has been in operation since 1834; and although the test of fifteen years has pointed out defects, experience has suggested no better mode of administering the criminal justice of the state. Some of its penalties are severe—necessarily so—but not more so than is demanded by the safety of the state and the security of its citizens. None of its provisions are sanguinary and cruel; and while they may be objectionable to that sort of fanaticism which would abolish all capital punishments, they accord with the principles of justice, and come up to the enlightened humanity of the age. Its sanctions are not in a temper of wanton cruelty, but of conservative and reforming equity. It has dispensed with the hideous relics of barbarism—the mutilating knife, the brand and the post, the pillory and the scourge. There are thirteen crimes, which, according to the penal code, are punished capitally.

"There are, no doubt, defects in the code, which experience will suggest and which time will reform. The experience of every year has resulted in improvements in the discipline of the State Prison. It has, after years of pecuniary embarrassment, surmounted its misfortunes, and now sustains itself and brings a small revenue to the state."

Our author next takes up the "militia system." This is farce, *farce, FARCE!* Once every year or two they have in Georgia what they call a militia muster, and if there is anything on earth which is truly ludicrous, and, at the same time, disgraceful and contemptible, it is one of these "*musters*." Get two negroes, one with a reed fife and the other with a broken-headed kettle-drum—then parade several score of men, boys and old women, helter-skelter after the music, with every alternate personage bawling out: "Shoulder—Arms!" and you will have some idea of a Georgia *muster*.*

The militia system in Georgia is synonymous with epithets of contempt and reproach. "It should be repealed," is upon the lips of every one. Yet it is not repealed. A desire, and we hope we may say a determination, to organize our militia and encourage volunteer companies, has recently sprung up amongst our people. They begin to speak of establishing armories, magazines, arsenals, cannon foundries, &c., with a zeal which bespeaks good things. Our oldest, wisest, and most prudent men are recommending this thing, and the signs of the times clearly indicate a necessity for it. Shall we not organize for armed opposition to any encroachment upon our rights? We may as well speak plainly. Shall we not prepare in time of peace for war, if war should come? Shall we not be prepared against the time when abolition shall let slip the dogs of war to bathe their fangs in our vitals? It is high time we were looking to our inter-

* The curious in reference to Georgia tactics, may refer to an article in Longstreet's "Georgia Scenes," headed the "Militia Muster," for amusing and instructive details with regard to this subject.

ests. The next legislature, we have no doubt, will adopt some policy in regard to our military system, which will put the state in a position to defend herself in these perilous times. We will give what our author says about our "*militia system.*"

"The militia of Georgia are organized into divisions, brigades, regiments, battalions, and companies. Each division is commanded by a major-general, whose staff consists of one division inspector with the rank of lieutenant colonel, one quarter-master and two aids, with the rank of major, each. Each brigade is commanded by a brigadier-general, whose staff consists of a brigade inspector with the rank of major, a brigade quarter-master, and an aid-de-camp with the rank of captain. Each regiment is commanded by a colonel, whose staff consists of a quarter-master, a pay-master, an adjutant with the rank of lieutenant, and one surgeon and mate, with a lieutenant-colonel and major, a sergeant-major, quarter-master-sergeant, and a drum and fife major. Each company consists of one captain, a first and second lieutenant and ensign, four sergeants and four corporals, a drummer and fifer, and sixty-four privates. At present there are thirteen divisions, each commanded by a major-general, comprising twenty-six brigades under the command of brigadier-generals."

We will merely say here, that although this looks very well on paper, it does not, in reality, exist. Not one-half of the offices are filled, and, as to each company's containing sixty-four privates, it is frequently the case that in one of the militia captain's districts there are not even a half-dozen privates.

On the subject of education, Mr. White gives an extract from a "Discourse delivered before the Georgia Historical Society, on the 12th day of February, 1845, by Dr. Church, President of the University of Georgia." We will give some portion of this extract. Dr. Church well says, that "had we carried out the views of her early patriots and the framers of our first constitution, Georgia would now have a system of education equal, if not superior, to that of any state in the Union." This is true; but, much to our shame, we have not carried out the intentions of our fathers. Still Georgia has done much for the cause of education within her borders, and will, we have no doubt, do much more.

"The first constitution of Georgia was adopted the 5th of February, 1777, only a few months after the declaration of independence. The 54th section of this constitution declares, "Schools shall be erected in each county, and supported at the general expense of the state." This is an important record in the history of our education. On the 31st of July, 1783, the legislature appropriated 1000 acres of land to each county for support of free schools. In 1784, a few months after the ratification of the treaty of peace by which our national independence was acknowledged, the legislature again, in session at Savannah, passed an act appropriating 40,000 acres of land for the endowment of a college or university. This act commences with the remarkable preamble: "Whereas the encouragement of religion and learning is an act of great importance to any community, and must tend to the prosperity and advantage of the same."

"In 1785 the charter of the university was granted, the preamble to which would do honor to any legislature, and will stand a monument to the wisdom and patriotism of those who framed it and those who adopted it."

"As it is the distinguishing happiness of free governments that civil order should be the result of choice and not of necessity, and the common wishes of the people become the laws of the land, their public prosperity, and even existence, very much depend upon suitably forming the minds and morals of their citizens. When the minds of the people in general are viciously disposed and unprincipled, and their conduct disorderly, a free government will be attended with greater convulsions, and evils more horrid than the wild, uncultivated state of nature. It can only be happy where the public principles and opinions are properly directed and their manners regulated.

"This is an influence beyond the stretch of laws and punishments, and can be claimed only by religion and education. It should therefore be among the first objects of those who wish well to national prosperity, to encourage and support the principles of religion and morality, and early to place the youth under the forming hand of society, that by instruction they may be moulded to the love of virtue and good order. Sending them abroad to other countries will not answer the purpose; is too humiliating an acknowledgment of the ignorance or inferiority of our own, and will always be the cause of such great foreign attachments, that upon principles of policy it is inadmissible."

"In 1792 an act was passed appropriating one thousand pounds for the endowment of an academy in each county.

"In 1798 a third constitution was adopted. The 13th section of the 4th article declares: 'The arts and sciences shall be patronized in one or more seminaries of learning.'

"In 1817 two hundred and fifty thousand dollars were appropriated to the support of poor schools. In 1818, every tenth and one hundredth lot of land in seven new counties was appropriated to the cause of education; and in 1821, two hundred and fifty thousand dollars were set apart for the support of county academies.

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"Georgia has often been represented as more inattentive to the great interests of education than almost any other state in the Union—a statement which does great injustice to our citizens. A correct history of our state will show, that those who have preceded us have done much for the cause of education. A full statement of all which has been given by the citizens of the state, would doubtless surprise many. I cannot at this time give a history of what has been done by our citizens in the cause of education. A few instances, however, will be sufficient to sustain me in the remark, that we have not been as utterly regardless of the interests of our education as many suppose. A number of our academies have respectable, and some of them very ample endowments: the result of both legislative aid and private liberality. Meson Academy, at Lexington, Oglethorpe

county, received from ten to fifteen thousand dollars—a permanent endowment from the individual whose name it bears. The Burke County Academy has a permanent fund of more than seven thousand dollars, and within a few years the citizens of this county have given to other institutions probably over \$20,000. The Richmond Academy has buildings, and library, and apparatus worth probably \$30,000—an annuity from real estate amounting to \$1,600, and bank stock to the amount of \$12,000, besides lands, which are rapidly increasing in value.

"Here, also, is a Medical College, endowed by the state to the amount of, perhaps, \$35,000, and possessing buildings, apparatus, library, and the usual means for conducting such an institution, to the amount of \$50,000. This institution is now well established, and justly meriting, and largely receiving, the patronage of the state and other states. The Chatham Academy has large and valuable buildings, and funds sufficient to sustain an institution of superior character. In the village of Washington there is, besides the Male Academy, which has always been well sustained, a Female Institute of very high character; for the establishment of which the citizens of that county have come forward with liberal subscriptions. They have a beautiful building and library, and apparatus sufficient to render it an institution of high order. In La Grange, Troup county, are academies, both male and female, upon which the inhabitants of that village and county have expended large sums, and where hundreds of both sexes have, for years, enjoyed superior advantages for instruction. No one can visit these, and many other Academies and High Schools, which are found in all our older and thickly-settled counties, without seeing that a large amount has been expended by our citizens for purposes of education. The Montpelier Institute, under the patronage of the Episcopal Church in Georgia, has, probably, cost \$20,000 in its establishment. One individual gave \$10,000. The Female College at Macon has, probably, cost not less than \$70,000. For the establishment and endowment of Emory College there have been raised between \$80,000 and \$100,000. For the establishment and endowment of Oglethorpe University, between \$80,000 and \$100,000. For the establishment and endowment of Mercer University and a Theological Seminary, between \$150,000 and \$200,000 have been given.

"The citizens of Georgia have given to the Theological Seminary at Columbia, S. C., about \$60,000; to Randolph, Macon College, N. C., \$10,000; to the Columbian College, D. C., \$25,000; to the Theological Seminary at Princeton, N. J., \$25,000; to the Theological Seminary at Andover, Mass., a considerable amount—how much I am unable to say, as I have received no answer to an inquiry touching that subject, which I addressed to one of its professors. I know that Mr. John Whitehead, of Burke county, gave \$2,500. We have here, for the purpose of establishing institutions of learning, private subscriptions, by the citizens of Georgia, and that within a few years, to the amount of more than \$600,000.

"I have mentioned only a small part which has been given for

this purpose in the state. Our people are not, they never have been, regardless of this subject; but from our peculiar situation we have, thus far, failed to unite and concentrate the action of our whole people. They have the ability and the disposition to spread the light of knowledge over our state. Let them be properly enlightened, and they will come forth with an energy which will overcome all obstacles. That our University has not accomplished more, is, undoubtedly, a source of regret to every friend of knowledge; that it has accomplished as much as it has, is, perhaps, a cause of rejoicing to all its friends. It will not be denied by any one, that this institution has been gradually advancing in usefulness since its funds have been sufficient to sustain the expenses necessarily incident to a respectable college. These expenses are much larger than many, who have had no experience in the management of such institutions, apprehend.

"The University of Georgia had for an endowment 40,000 acres of land, located by the surveyors in what are now Hancock, Greene, Oglethorpe, Clark, Jackson, Franklin, and in the fork of Tugalo and Seneca Rivers. By the treaty of Beaufort, the last tract was lost by falling within the State of South Carolina. Thus \$5,000 acres, equal in value to more than one-eighth of the endowment of the University, were wholly lost. The remaining lands were long unsaleable, and could not be rented for any valuable consideration. The country was new, and land abundant and cheap—much, even of a good quality, could be obtained by merely surveying it, and paying the fees for granting. The lands, therefore, of the University, could not be made available for any valuable purpose, and the trustees were unable to commence the institution. None of the lands belonging to the University were sold until 1803, and then only a small portion, and at a low price. Most of them remained unsold and unproductive till 1816, when they were nearly all sold, and \$100,000 vested in bank, as a permanent fund for the support of the institution. The legislature, in consideration of the large amount of bonds for these lands, over the \$100,000, guaranteed that this permanent fund should yield annually eight per cent.

"The college was nearly suspended from 1816 to 1819, and, by aid of the surplus funds, during this period, the debts of the institution were paid, the buildings repaired, the small library increased, and the philosophical and chemical apparatus greatly enlarged. From this period the institution began to assume a respectable stand; its students increased—the Board obtained the services of a respectable number of officers, and continually enlarged the library and apparatus.

"The first Commencement was on Thursday, the 31st May, 1804. The exercises were held under an arbor, erected in the campus; the number of graduates was nine. Of these, four are now living, viz.: Col. Gibson Clark, Gen. Jeptha V. Harris, Col. Wm. H. Jackson, and James Jackson, at present a Professor of Chemistry and Natural History in the University. The Hon. Augustus S. Clayton, one of its most untiring friends to the day of his death, was also a member

of this class. Thomas Irwin, Jared Irwin, Robert Rutherford, and William Williamson, were the four remaining members. The whole number of graduates is 533, among whom are found a large number of our most useful and distinguished citizens.

"The University has buildings which have cost perhaps \$75,000 or \$80,000. It has a very extensive and complete philosophical apparatus, a good chemical laboratory, a large mineral cabinet, and a very neat botanic garden. These have cost at least 20,000 dollars. The two literary societies have libraries amounting to about 5,000 volumes. The officers of the University are now a president, six professors and two tutors. Considering all the circumstances, may it not be said that its trustees have done much; that they have not betrayed their trust; and that though the state may not have done as much as many friends of learning could desire, she has done more than many apprehend—more than many states which are supposed to have been very liberal in their endowment and support of seminaries of learning. It is true that the citizens of the state, as individuals, have given but little to the institution. It has not been the recipient of such legacies and donations as have been bestowed upon the older colleges. But may not the liberality of our citizens, which has been so free towards other and private seminaries, be yet turned towards this? And since so much has been done by the trustees to carry out the designs of its enlightened and patriotic founders, may we not reasonably suppose that the state hereafter will appropriate to it whatever may be necessary to place it by the side of the most favored and useful colleges in the land?"

There are in Georgia four male colleges for scholastic education, and then there is the Medical College besides. Franklin College, located in Athens, Clark county, is the state institution, and the most respectable site of learning in the state. Much is said of it in the extract already given from the address of Dr. Church, the amiable and accomplished president.

"The character of Dr. Church is so favorably known to the people of Georgia, that it is almost superfluous to say anything in relation to him. With a mind richly furnished with the stores of learning—with manners proverbially captivating—with uncommon kindness of disposition, and with the prudence and firmness requisite to be possessed by those to whom the people of Georgia commit the education of their sons, at a period the most critical in the life of youth, Dr. Church has every qualification for the exalted position which he has long filled.

Associated with him are seven Professors, viz.:—

James Jackson, A. M., Professor of Natural History and Modern Languages; appointed in 1823.

James P. Waddel, A. M., Professor of Ancient Languages, a son of Dr. Moses Waddel; appointed in 1836.

Charles F. McKay, A. M., Professor of Mathematics, Astronomy and Civil Engineering; appointed in 1836.

John Le Conte, M. D., Professor of Natural Philosophy and Chemistry; appointed in 1846.

Hon. Joseph Henry Lumpkin, Professor of Law; appointed in 1847.

N. H. Wood, A. M., Adjunct Professor of Mathematics; appointed in 1848.

The Rev. William J. Brantley, A. M., Professor of Belles Lettres, Oratory and History; appointed in 1848.

M. C. Fulton, A. M., Tutor in Ancient Languages; appointed in 1847.

The University is now in a state of great prosperity. The number of students, according to the last catalogue, was one hundred and forty.

The resources of the University are 100,000 dollars in stock of the Bank of the State of Georgia, and about fifteen hundred dollars in other stocks, together with the proceeds of the tuition of students, and a small amount of town lots. The buildings are:—

Two three-story, 120 by 45 feet, for lodging-rooms for students; a philosophical hall and chemical laboratory, a chapel, a library and cabinet, president's house, and three houses for the professors. The library contains between eight and nine thousand volumes. The philosophical apparatus is one of the most extensive and complete in the country; the chemical laboratory is ample; the cabinet of minerals large, and the botanic garden in good order.

The college has forty-four acres of ground on which the buildings are erected, and which is set apart by the legislature of the state for that purpose, and can never be diminished.

Connected with the college are two societies. Each has a very neat and convenient hall, erected at the expense of the society, and costing about \$4,000 each. The library of each of these associations contains between two and three thousand volumes.

Mercer University, a sectarian college under the control of the Baptists, was called after the Rev. Jesse Mercer, a man of some talent and a good deal of zeal and energy for his day and generation. This institution has funds to the amount of \$138,200, besides valuable buildings and an extensive tract of land. It is indebted principally to Mr. Mercer for its endowment, and hence its name. It is situated in a very pretty little village called Penfield, Greene county, called after Mr. Josiah Penfield of Savannah, who bequeathed to the Baptist Convention of Georgia \$2,500 to aid in the education of poor young men preparing for the ministry. Other funds were obtained, and in 1833 was established a literary and theological institution, with a department for manual labor. In 1838 it received a charter from the legislature under the name of Mercer University. In 1845 the manual labor department was dropped, and the present course of theological instruction adopted. The library of this college contains 2,000 volumes. Additions are occasionally being made to the apparatus. Valuable libraries are possessed by the two literary societies. There are six professorships in this college. The Rev. Mr. Dagg, President, fills one, and in addition to him there are five other professors. From the catalogue before our author, it appeared that there were in attendance upon this institution 120 students.

Oglethorpe University is another sectarian college under the control of the Presbyterians, situated at Midway, near Milledgeville, in Baldwin county. The Synod of South Carolina and Georgia has the immediate direction of the affairs of this seminary. The President is the Rev. Samuel K. Talmage, a most worthy and intelligent man, well fitted to superintend the education of youth. He is a graduate of Princeton College, and was elected to his present post in 1841. There are four professors and one rector of the preparatory school. The usual buildings, societies, libraries and apparatus, are connected with this institution.

A third sectarian college in Georgia is that of the Methodists, situated in Oxford, a little village in Newton county. It was founded in 1837, and was called after Bishop Emory of the Methodist Episcopal Church. The Rev. Ignatius Few, LL. D., was the first president; then Judge Longstreet—that wonderful man, author of "Georgia Scenes"—succeeded, and was president ten years. In 1848 he was called to a college in Mississippi, over which he now presides. Should he see this, it bears to him the best wishes of an old pupil. Dr. George Pierce is now the president. There are five professorships, one filled by the president. The usual number of students in attendance is about 120. Connected with the institution is a preparatory department.

ART. II.—SUGAR.*

M. ROUSSEAU'S PROCESS OF MANUFACTURE.

THE Academy having devolved upon us the examination of a memoir upon the manufacture of sugar, presented by M. Rousseau, at the meeting of July 29th, 1850, we respectfully submit the following report :

New processes designed to improve the extraction of sugar always excite a lively interest. This is due to the fact, that the sugar industry, alike agricultural and manufacturing, tends to increase the products of the soil of France; it develops labor, and diffuses useful mechanical and chemical ideas, within our territory; and it concerns the principal production of our colonies.

The importance of the manufacture of sugar is great, also, if measured by the increasing extent of the demand for that article; our home market absorbs annually about 120 millions of kilogrammes; and must, without doubt, soon require much more. The consumption may indeed even be tripled in France, if we judge by the

* Report to the Academy of Sciences, Paris, October 14th, 1850, upon a memoir of M. Rousseau, relative to the manufacture of sugar, by a committee composed of MM. Thenard, Boussingault and Payen. Translated and communicated by R. S. McCulloh, Prof. of Nat. Philos., in the College of New-Jersey, at Princeton, &c.

progress thereof among some of our neighbors.* All means of rendering the operations more perfect, and the products more pure, further this end.

During the last forty years, our skillful manufacturers, at the cost of persevering, varied and expensive experiments, have introduced remarkable improvements in our sugar factories and refineries. Yet there still remain problems to be solved, and progress to be made in France, and much more in our colonies; for on an average, but 0.6 of the sugar in the beet is obtained; and scarcely 0.4 of the quantity (almost double, however) of that in the cane. The experimental labors of our manufacturing chemists are at this moment more active than ever, and we may hope that the yield upon a large scale will shortly approximate closely to the limits assigned by science.

Among the circumstances which constitute grave obstacles to the realization of the maximum result, we must certainly reckon the very complicated composition of the juice of the beet and of the sugar-cane; a composition unstable, and variable according to the nature of the soil, climate and season.

The substances which engender fermentation, and develop colored or viscous matter, often cause destruction of sugar, and lead to a complication of phenomena very unfavorable for its extraction. A large number of reagents have been tried, either in laboratories or in sugar-houses, for separating these injurious substances; but only two have remained in practical use: slaked lime, which renders insoluble several albuminous and pectic substances, and bone-black, which removes an excess of lime, part of the coloring, and other foreign matters.

In 1811, M. Barruel, chief of the chemical works of the Faculty of Medicine, recommended, in a note inserted in the *Moniteur*, the use of carbonic acid to precipitate lime from beet-juice, defecated, as usual, with about 3 of lime for 1000 of juice. Subsequently, M. Baudrimont tried, on a large scale, its application to the purpose.

In 1833, M. Kuhlman, of Lille, supposing that, in the ordinary defecation, all the nitrogenous matter of the juice is precipitated, but that there is always combination of sugar with the lime, proposed to effect the separation of the lime by means which appeared to him more prompt and economical than the use of bone-black: to wit, the injection of carbonic acid gas into beet-juice, after the usual defecation.

Again, in 1838, M. Kuhlman, considering the experiments of M. Pelouze upon the persistence of the properties of sugar when disengaged from its combination with lime, admitting also that lime prevents the absorption of oxygen in defecated juice, declared that a process of manufacture might be founded upon this conservative property of sugar, regardless of any influence of lime during the work; that consequently, it would be well to subject the sugar com-

* The consumption in England and Scotland is 15 kilogs. per individual, or $4\frac{1}{2}$ times greater than in France; in Holland, the consumption exceeds 8 kilogs., or $2\frac{1}{2}$ times that with us; and in Paris, it is 10 kilogs., or three times the mean consumption in France.

bined with lime to the greater part of the operations requisite for its extraction: and that, by operating in this manner, the bone-black would be economized, and the work facilitated.

Trials were made in accordance with these views: the juice was boiled with an excess (15 per 1000) of lime, without complete separation of the feculencies. And the precipitation of the lime by carbonic acid was performed, after this ebullition or partial evaporation, and at the temperature of 25 to 30 degrees (centigrade) only.

If the results, obtained by such means in the laboratory, appeared favorable, they could not, however, be realized on a large scale: no factory in France adopted a mode of working founded on a like basis.

Such was the state of the question when, towards the close of 1848, M. Rousseau undertook to show, on a large scale, a process of extraction of sugar, of which he had determined, by long investigation, the principal conditions of success,—conditions very different, as we shall show, from those which had previously failed.

He repeated his experiments upon small quantities of juice, in the presence of M. Cail, one of our most skillful constructors of sugar apparatus, and of M. Leguime, an experienced sugar manufacturer.

These gentlemen became convinced that the new process would be advantageous; they therefore put it into practice, and obtained favorable results from the first.

The method of M. Rousseau requires: 1st, the use of a certain excess of lime, at a determined temperature; 2d, the separation of the scum, and of the precipitated substances; 3d, the immediate elimination of the lime united with the sugar; 4th, filtration through granular bone-black; 5th, rapid evaporation, crystallization and draining, in the usual manner.

If it has been supposed that this process is but the revival of that indicated in 1833, or in 1838, though these invariably failed, while the new process is entirely successful; a more attentive consideration will render evident the fundamental differences between them.

M. Rousseau explains in his memoir the characteristic features which distinguish his process from the methods previously proposed, and we must say, that the experiments tried by us to verify the facts announced by him, establish those facts and the views deduced from them.

By setting forth the causes of failure of the first methods, and the necessary conditions which have assured the success of the new, the difference between them may, we think, be clearly defined.

The first mode indicated by the predecessors of M. Rousseau, had evidently for its object and result, the separation of the lime after ordinary defecation; or the substitution, in this respect, of carbonic acid for bone-black. But it will be perceived that this substitution would not be efficient, because it furnishes no equivalent for the purifying and decolorizing properties of the animal charcoal.

The second mode was inapplicable industrially, for it offered several grave inconveniences without compensation.

Indeed : 1st. The incomplete defecation left in the turbid juice organic substances, which the carbonic acid finally set free to act upon the sugar, by disengaging them from their combination with the lime.

2d. The juice or syrup containing saccharates of lime, potash and soda, even if limpid, could not be evaporated either as quickly, or as easily, as solutions of sugar isolated from such combinations.

3d. The temperature of ebullition, evidently higher and more prolonged, would, concurrently with a strong alkaline reaction, produce a thorough alteration of several ternary nitrogenous substances ; this alteration manifested itself by the disengagement of ammoniacal vapors, and by the development of a strong odor and a brown coloration ; and even supposing the sugar to have remained unchanged, its extraction was rendered more difficult.

4th. Under such circumstances, the carbonic acid used to saturate the lime might arrest the progress of the evil, but it could not remedy the alterations produced.

We will now show that the conditions combined in the method of M. Rousseau are quite different, and that they rest upon new experimental observations.

M. Rousseau performs the defecation with a quantity of lime so large,* that not only the substances which have a greater affinity for it than sugar has, but also those which have even a less affinity, and consequently the sugar itself, can combine therewith.

The result is, that the saccharate of lime remains in solution, while the foreign substances are separated in greater proportion than by the ordinary mode of defecation.

The experiments which we have tried upon the products precipitated by graduated doses of lime, have shown that several different organic compounds may thus be successively separated from the juice.

The essential conditions of the new mode of defecation consist in pouring a strong emulsion of slaked lime into the beet-juice, heated preparatorily to about 55 degrees centigrade (130° Fahr.) The temperature is elevated, while the coagulation at the same time becomes more marked ; and as soon as the thermometer indicates 80 a 90 degrees cent. (175° a 195° Fahr.), but especially before ebullition commences, the heating is arrested by shutting the cock which admits the steam.†

The liquor is then drawn off, and flocculent matter in suspension is all carefully separated from it by filtration.

The filtered juice flows directly into a steam-pan with a double bottom, in which the saturation of the lime by carbonic acid at once proceeds.

* M. Rousseau has observed two states of combination of sugar with lime ; the compound, which has more of the base, can yield a portion thereof to the foreign substances to be precipitated.

† One of the principal signs of a perfect defecation by this process, is the decoloration and clarification of the liquid ; the doses of lime which produce these effects, triple or quadruple of those usually employed, are greater as the season advances, so that they must even sometimes be doubled towards the close of the work, that is to say, three months after pulling up the beets.

At first a voluminous froth rises; but as viscosity disappears by the decomposition of the saccharates, the syrup, becoming more fluid, allows the gas to escape as freely as through water. This change guides the workman, who arrests, at the proper moment, the insufflation of the gas.

Opening then the steam-cock, the liquid is heated by means of the double bottom, so as to produce ebullition, which is kept up for several minutes, in order to drive off the excess of carbonic acid, and complete the precipitation of the carbonate of lime.

The liquor is then poured upon a filter of granular bone-black, without waiting for the subsidence of the carbonate of lime, for this crystalline carbonate causes no trouble in the filtration.

It is evident that the soda and potash remain dissolved as carbonates; the alkalinity of which reacts upon the nitrogenous and other organic substances, and produces the unfavorable effects mentioned above. M. Rousseau has got rid of this cause of alteration almost wholly, by the addition of ammonia towards the end of the insufflation of carbonic acid. Carbonate of ammonia is formed, which, being immediately decomposed by the organic calcareous salts, allows the ammonia to escape and carbonate of lime to be formed; the organic acids, uniting with the soda and potash, destroy nearly all alkalinity.

The succeeding operations, namely, evaporation, second filtration through bone black, and concentration, are performed as ordinarily; only they are more prompt and easy; for the syrups, less viscid, better freed of calcareous compounds, and less colored, no longer froth in boiling, evaporate more rapidly and at a lower temperature, cause no incrustations in the boilers, and require scarcely two-thirds of the quantity of bone black usually employed.

The successive crystallizations of second, third, fourth and fifth products are less embarrassed, and extend to syrups which heretofore have passed to the molasses, yielding sugar easy to drain, and purify by liquorizing in rotary apparatus.

In view of these facts, may we not conclude that the new process will give more sugar and be more economical than the processes followed before? This seems very probable, provided that care be taken to separate the larger quantity of sugar united with the feculencies; for an equal volume of syrup will give more abundant crystals; less animal charcoal will be consumed; the evaporating apparatus will work better, and require less cleaning; and the slight expense for carbonic acid (15 centimes per hectolitre of juice) and the excess of lime (5 centimes nearly) will be very largely compensated by the diminution of other expenses.

Upon this point, the names of the skillful manufacturers who, after having verified the facts which we have ourselves witnessed at the establishment of M. Leguime, have adopted this method, furnish the best guarantee of a correct appreciation.

We will mention, first, MM. Bernard freres, of Santes, and M. Telloy, of Courrieres (Nord). The example which they set last year has been followed by M. Hebert and MM. Rhem freres, of La

Basse Yute (Moselle); by M. Clovis Godin, of Cuiney (Nord), and M. Alexandre Perier, of Flavy (Aine). Several proprietors of large sugar estates abroad have procured the apparatus of MM. Cail and Cheilus for the application of the method of M. Rousseau. They are, particularly: in Russia, Count Bobrinsky and Mr. Potoki; and in the vicinity of Warsaw, Mr. Raut. Several directors of colonial sugar estates have become convinced that this apparatus is applicable with advantage for their purposes. MM. Zuluetta, of Havana, and Robin, of the Union, are engaged in its introduction upon their estates; and we shall soon know what to think about the application of the method to the juice of the cane, and under circumstances very different from those which exist in France.

Henceforth, we believe, it may be said, that by introducing into our sugar industry a new method, of which we have just set forth the fortunate results, M. Rousseau has contributed to the progress thereof, and rendered a service worthy of fixing the attention of the Academy and of its approbation.

The conclusions of this report were adopted.

ART. III.—SUPPOSITITIOUS REVIEWS.*

TIERRA DE GUERRA.

(Concluded.)

It was in a large, gloomy apartment, or more properly cavern, that I lay, with my face turned towards an irregular opening in the wall, through which day-light entered. I was weak from want of food, and tormented with thirst, and not a little perplexed to account for the fact that I was stretched upon a coarse mat, without power to stand erect: I presently recalled the late events, however, and concluded from my reduction in flesh and strength, that a greater interval had elapsed than a single day, as I had at first imagined.

The cleft, which served both for door and window, did not open immediately upon the outer air, but cut off, by an elbow, all view of sky or country; and with a longing to look upon these, I had crawled half way to the gap, when a shrunken little woman made her appearance, and after bestowing upon me a score of linked curses, called to her assistance a second hag, not less wrinkled and hideous, and dragged me back to my mat by the hair, without the slightest ceremony. This was rather rough treatment for an invalid, but I forgave it when, in answer to my repeated cry of '*ail!*' (water,) one of them brought a great gourd, from which I drank new life into my system; a hand-

* From this period to that of the author's escape and the close of the book, the interest of the narrative is well enough sustained to be worth quoting entire. It will be remembered, we left Señor Eustace insensible in his old prison, or rather cage; his quarters were changed for the worse meanwhile.

ful of roasted maize left me, also helped to diminish my feebleness, and I found inclination to look about more curiously.

There was nothing to remark but the bare rock walls of a natural cavern, roughly shorn of the more prominent projections, the less irregular roof, and the floor, also of rock, strewed with mats similar to the one I occupied. I made another effort to reach the mouth of the dungeon-like room in the course of the morning, and this time succeeded, but gained little by the exertion, as the whole prospect consisted in a barren slope sprinkled with loose stones, extending to a ravine below, in which grew about a dozen stunted trees, and the steep side of the unshaded sierra opposite, the foot of which had been hewn down to serve as a wall full forty feet in perpendicular height. It was something, nevertheless, to breathe pure air; but this privilege was not long accorded me, for a man passing the foot of the hill and catching sight of my person, called out, as I supposed, to the crones to carry me back; and not being partial to their method of accomplishing that result, I retreated before they arrived.

At dusk there was a commotion without, followed by the entrance of a numerous company of men, whose faces it was too dark to distinguish, but whom I found to be Tepecohuatlans by the few words interchanged while taking possession of their separate mats. I endeavored to find out from my left neighbor, the wall being next me on the right, a man of herculean frame, where I was and who these men were, but he lay with his face turned away, and would make no reply.

By dawn they were all marched forth, and again at twilight returned, and this was the daily practice. Meantime my strong constitution hourly got the better of the effects of the late illness, in spite of my being compelled to breathe only the unwholesome atmosphere of the dungeon, a guard now keeping watch at the gap, and preventing even an approach to the exterior. It was nearly a week after my return to consciousness, that one night I was roused by a cautious shake and a few words of Spanish whispered close to my ear. I was instantly wide awake, scarce crediting the reality; in an equally low tone demanded who spoke, for the darkness was so intense that nothing whatever could be distinguished. I quickly learned it was my neighbor of the gigantic proportions, who explained that he had hitherto concealed his identity for fear of retarding my recovery. The rest of our room-mates were convicts condemned to working the mines, and he himself was no better off; his story, which he afterwards related in full, can be told here in a few words. He was a Spaniard, and by trade a blacksmith, but having imbibed an irresistible fondness for wandering over the world, came to Central America, and finally strayed without any definite object into the midst of some one of the Candoné tribes, by whom he was captured and brought to Tepetlan.

After a short imprisonment, he was one day taken to the platform of a teocalli, a spear and shield given him, and immediately set upon by six warriors equally armed, in full view of an immense concourse of people. In Spain, his restless disposition had led him into frequent

tumults, in which a stout staff was the most usual weapon when daggers were not drawn, and using his spear now as such, and thrusting where an opportunity offered, he succeeded in killing or maiming all his antagonists, and was carried back to prison with only a few trifling wounds ; thence he had been conveyed to work the mines, which last he thought little better than being murdered outright, although he did not like the idea of being eaten afterwards. His name was Miguel Boso.

It appeared that on the return as usual of the miners, about three weeks previous, he found me lying next to him, delirious, and raving in Spanish and some unknown language ; the former sounded like music in his ears, and he at once proclaimed himself my protector, and by the influence his strength and daring gave him over the others, I was saved from being stripped, as I would otherwise have been, and my remnants of civilized clothing appropriated. I learned, also, that in a few days I would probably be ordered out to work ; but that occurred sooner than we anticipated, for the very next morning after our first conversation, a shirt of coarse matting was thrown to me, with a few rough words which Miguel translated into a command to follow the rest. This I did, and coming into the light, found the convicts, sixty or more in number, equipped as myself, except that the greater part seemed to possess no other garment ; my new friend wore only in addition to the matting a pair of tattered drawers or hose. A strong guard, armed with spears and bows, was in attendance, and marched us in ranks three deep down the declivity and along the valley : the soldiers appearing to be of an inferior order to those I had hitherto seen, their chiefs being merely *coamatlis* ; similar detachments were conducting gangs of laborers from various quarters as we advanced, the mouths of the caves from which they issued resembling black holes in the slope of the hills. These hills, a ridge of which ran on either hand, occasionally approaching so near as to contract the intermediate valley into a mere chasm, were throughout cut down, as I have stated ; the sierra side facing our cavern being of solid rock, and the crevices carefully filled, presented an obstacle to escape utterly insurmountable. Before we reached the end of our march, too, we came within sight of an artificial wall of equal height raised across a narrow portion of the glen, and furnished with folding gates of slabs of rock turning on pivots, and which were opened and closed only by the effort of twenty or more men : this was the only outlet, and a strong body of the soldiers remained day and night in its vicinity. My heart fell as I noticed these indications of the care taken to frustrate attempts at escape, and I wished with all my soul that death had delivered me from such hopeless slavery.

Not far from the stone gate we turned into a cleft in the mountain, which conducted by steep and rough steps into the mine, my future scene of labor ; but first each man received from a hut near at hand a hammer and cold chisel, or an implement resembling the pointed half of an ordinary pickaxe, and with these tools, and accompanied by a portion of our escort who acted as overseers and brought up the

rear, we filed down into the dismal cavity. I was surprised at the number and vigilance of the guards in a valley so well enclosed, but afterwards learned that twice before the miners had entered into a conspiracy, sallied simultaneously from their lairs, and very nearly succeeded in defeating the entire corps of warriors: since the last attempt they had been divided into companies of fifty or sixty each, closely watched while at work, and made to sleep in natural or artificial caverns having but a single outlet, at which two guards remained throughout the night, a number of others sleeping within reach of their call. I saw the long, low structure which had formerly served as a dormitory for the convicts; and also, on our return in the afternoon, what I had not noticed in the faint light of dawn, a rugged stone building in the immediate neighborhood of each of the caves, constituting the quarters of the detachments referred to.

Our mine was very extensive, and branched into galleries following the course of the different veins. One portion of our company with the pickaxes were employed in cutting out and around huge masses, which, when loosened, were broken into convenient pieces by those with hammers, and the pieces carried up in sacks of matting by gangs, and delivered to others still, who beat the ore to powder, washed it repeatedly, and finally transferred the product to smelters, whose furnaces, half-filled with charcoal, extracted a metal containing a large proportion of tin. These particulars, however, I gathered chiefly from Miguel, who had at one time labored with the smelters, as during the period of my servitude I was employed in mining alone.

We were allowed but a single meal a day, a few handfuls of parched maize to be eaten in the mine, and for drink, the water oozing through the crevices in some spots; and from first to last of my experience, there was no variation in the daily routine of hard labor and scanty fare, except that caused by new acts of violence and oppression. The unwholesome atmosphere breathed day and night, joined to the nature of the food given us, caused unceasing mortality, as no attention was paid to the most desperate cases of illness; and as all who were able to rise, were compelled to go to the galleries or furnaces, it more than once occurred that a poor wretch fell dead, or dying, hammer in hand, or that one of our fellows was found in the morning stiff upon his mat. Occasionally, too, a miner, from sullenness or inability, failing to perform his task, or possibly merely to gratify the malice of one of our masters, would be taken out and beaten so unmercifully with slender metal rods, as seldom to survive an hour. On the event of each of these latter deaths, a suspicious feast of baked meat was served out, on our return to the cavern at nightfall, which the Tepecohuatlans ate voraciously: the first time it was brought, I received a fragment with the eagerness of a half-starved man, when Miguel caught my arm and uttered a few syllables, which turned my stomach, and caused me to fling the unnatural food as far as sudden horror and disgust could give me strength to cast it. Nothing stimulated my resolution to endure and live on, after

this occurrence, so much as the dread of affording a banquet to the cannibals around.

In our nightly talks, I repeatedly urged Miguel to join me in an attempt to escape, however desperate, rather than suffer as we daily did ; but to all such questions he refused to answer, listening in silence to my arguments, and then turning the whispered conversation to other matters. At length despairing of convincing him, and fearful that the inroads which I could not but observe the unhealthy exposure hourly endured was making upon my imperfectly established health, would in the end incapacitate me for all such efforts, I firmly asserted my determination to procrastinate no longer, but the very next night to regain my liberty or lose my life. Upon hearing this, to my great surprise, Miguel at the instant threw off all his former apathy, clutched my hand, and swore he had waited and concealed his true inclination, only until he should discover whether I was at heart resolved to act as well as plot, since he knew but one way of possible escape, and no little resolution was required to attempt even that.

It seemed, two years before, while hewing out the last block of ore from a vein, the extremity of which had been reached, his pick-axe made an orifice through which a ray of daylight shone in, and taking advantage of his partial concealment from the other miners and overseers by a projection, he had cut a hole large enough to allow a view of a plain below dotted with houses and trees, when he was called to, and compelled to proceed to another shaft, but not until he had succeeded in pulling down a heap of rubbish over the cavity, the better to conceal it from chance observation.

During the entire space of the two succeeding years, his thoughts had been employed in little else than the endeavor to fall upon some feasible plan by means of which to reach the site of his discovery, and enlarge the crevice sufficiently to allow of escape ; for the workmen had never since approached that section of the mine—the subjacent vein of metal being exhausted, and to elude the vigilance of the *otahls* of the mines, was a thing impracticable.

I expressed some wonder that he had not made the trial by night, and that, he said, was precisely what he now desired to do ; but single-handed as he had hitherto been, for the convicts were too treacherous to be trusted even where their own interests were involved, to have endeavored to master a couple of guards, ever wide awake, and with a strong reserve within call, would have ensured failure to himself, and a feast to *los caribes baxos* (the man-eating vagabonds) : he did not fear death merely, but could not tolerate the idea of being digested piecemeal by a pack of savages !

His plan now was, to steal upon the *otahls* unaware, by using extreme caution, simultaneously seizing each by the throat, and either strangling or gagging them, (*as might be most convenient* :) then hasten to the mine, cut a passage through, and once more find ourselves at liberty.

I entered with my whole heart into his scheme, which appeared the more plausible, as, when resolved to issue forth on the expedition

alone rather than not at all, I had conceived no other than the desperate hope of clambering up the forty feet of bare wall at a place I had noticed in passing, overhung half-way down with vines from a sort of table-land above. I was at a loss, however, to conceive in what manner we would find it practicable to enlarge the opening first made, until Miguel informed me he had managed to secrete in another gallery, a pickaxe, dropped by one of our company who had died from blows received, and with it we could work in turn.

All things being thus arranged, we agreed to delay the trial for a tempestuous night, that the noise of a struggle at the mouth of the dungeon, if any occurred, might be effectually drowned: and before the lapse of another week, the opportunity offered.

The rain fell heavily, and taking advantage of a flash of lightning which made the true direction of the outlet visible, we extricated ourselves from a labyrinth of mats and sleeping occupants, through which we had been groping, and felt our way noiselessly to the door. Here we waited, crouched close until another glare of light showed, as we were confident would be the case, the two *otahls* taking refuge from the storm in the mouth of the passage.

We lost no time in creeping within spring, and the moon affording a faint light through the clouds, but sufficient to distinguish the outlines of their seated figures, in another moment our fingers were fastened upon the throat of each, and a fierce struggle followed. The fellow upon whom I had pounced was a burly, muscular savage, but he had to do with a desperate man, and although dashed violently upon the ground by his efforts to tear loose, I hung on with fingers of iron, and concentrated every particle of my determination and strength in the death-grip: fortunately, he either had not, or failed to use a knife, and while rolling on the floor there was no time to shorten his spear for a thrust. Still his resistance was so strong, that I was much relieved when Miguel, having effectually quieted his antagonist, came to my assistance, and gagged and tied mine before I released his windpipe: he wished to thrust a spear into his heart, as he had done to the other, but that I would not allow, since, to a helpless man, it would have been sheer murder.

We now saw the great advantage afforded by the uproar of the elements, as but for that, the noise of the grapple would have called the neighboring force upon us; and gathering up the weapons of our late guards, we crawled out on hands and knees, and keeping a good look-out for stragglers who might chance to be abroad, for it was now not far from daylight, and the tempest fast abating, began to descend, turning at first shortly to the right to avoid as far as possible the vicinity of the soldiers' quarters. As soon as the dwarf bushes at the bottom of the gorge were gained, we rose to our feet and walked rapidly in the direction of the mine in which we commonly worked; every thing thus far had gone well, but there was no time to lose, for before we reached the latter place the storm had entirely passed over, and the moon shone out more brightly than was agreeable. However, we encountered no one until within sight of the mouth, when a man appeared so suddenly in front that there was no time to con-

ceal ourselves ; accordingly we walked quietly on, and would have parted with the usual mute salutation, had he not halted, and eyeing us narrowly, asked in Tepecohuatlan, "when the sun would rise?" a question apparently unmeaning enough where they reckon time by the sun's progress, but in the mouth of the common people, full of suspicious significance.

**Itz teotl!*—returned Miguel readily, pointing to the eastern horizon as if understanding the question literally, and with a laugh moved on.

The other laughed also at the dull jest, and made no opposition to our advancing ; but scarcely were our backs turned, when he quickened his pace and presently broke into a run. He had reckoned without his host, however : for Miguel, drawing the *otahl's* bow from under his shirt, let fly an arrow which must have whizzed close to his ear, to judge by the nimbleness with which he dodged ; a second was more to the purpose, and he fell and rolled over in a manner so abandoned, that there was no necessity to turn back to see if he were dead or not.

We hastened into the chasm, and groping down the two first descents, every step of which was familiar, by twirling one of the spears rapidly between the palms in turn, we managed to ignite the extremity socketed in a bit of dry wood ; there was no difficulty in finding the remains of several torches, and with the important aid of light to our progress, we quickly reached the gallery where the gap was to be made, the pick being first recovered after some search, from the crevice in which my comrade had hidden it. The extremity was less easily arrived at, as a quantity of rubbish, accumulated either by accident or design, choked the shallow passage ; we removed enough to allow us to climb over the remainder, and clearing away that pulled down two years before by the Spaniard, discovered the hole and fell to work to enlarge it. The rock was not very hard, and hewing alternately we made rapid progress, as there was great need to do, day having dawned, and our absence, probably, already detected. At length the cavity appeared of sufficient size to allow an exit ; but on attempting it, the shoulders of Miguel proved too broad, although I found no hindrance myself in crawling through. The worst of it now was, that, cutting away the projection which prevented his passage, would bring down, it seemed not unlikely, a mass of overhanging rock, and so block up the hollow more completely than at first ; but after examining the exterior, I found the block to be of even greater size than appeared from within, but so well poised that I thought I could easily support it by using the spear shafts as levers, while the blacksmith with a few blows removed the natural prop from one corner and effected his egress, an advantage also lying in the fact that we would then have it in our power to destroy all direct clue to our manner of attaining that end.

On making trial, I found it quite practicable ; and after the commu-

* A common mode of telling the time of any occurrence among the Aztec nations ; designating the place in the heavens the sun will be at, with the words 'itz teotl' (God will be there.) Here it can be rendered 'at sunrise.'

nication of this agreeable intelligence, Miguel had already hewn nearly through the support, when a sudden burst of shouts, cries, and clash of weapons within, announced a disaster. With a burning heart I listened, eager to return to the aid of my companion, yet not daring to release my hold, as unfortunately so much had been cut from beneath, that the weight upon the spears was scarce endurable, and a momentary withdrawal of resistance would have permanently closed the passage. I looked searchingly and hurriedly around my feet for some object within arm's length which might be used as a temporary prop, shouting meantime to Miguel in Spanish to hold out until I could reach him; but these latter events transpiring with the swiftness of thought, while I was still eagerly endeavoring to accomplish my purpose, a cessation of the clamor in the shaft indicated that all was over, and at the instant, with a jeering laugh, a human head was flung through the gap, and rolled down the hill like a ball.

I was horror-struck, but there was no time to indulge such feeling, for I could distinguish that a number of the Tepecohuatlans were forcing their way through: I waited only until the foremost had cleared half his body, when suddenly dropping the levers, the huge rock toppled over, and settled in the cleft with a dull *crush*, and except a smothered yell of rage from the interior, no sign of my enemies remained—the leaders of whom lay entirely buried beneath the mass. I could scarcely realize that the accursed valley was behind, and my liberty once more regained;—the fact was too new and strange. I sat down where I had stood, and looking around in the still dim light, could discern I was in a small ravine, the foot of which, a few yards below, was shut in by bushes, and the sides by rocky walls of no great height. As I breathed the fresh, cool air, I recalled vividly the last morning of absolute freedom, when, seated in the barranca near Chaxul, we awaited the breaking of day. The ill-starred companion with whom I had entered Tepetlan, had been savagely slaughtered before my eyes, and my escape was even now purchased with the blood of a second. I took up the clotted head, closed the lids over the staring balls, and making a hollow as well as I could among the loose stones, buried this last horrible memento of dangers passed.

Poor Miguel Boso—would that I might have given as Christian a sepulchre to thy miserable body!

Banishing every painful thought, I turned my face toward the plain, descended the little glen, and forcing a way through the thickets, stood upon the brow of a grassy slope, beyond which were fields of young maize, groves of tropical trees, and clusters of pretty, white houses; blue curls of thin smoke were rising here and there, swayed gently to and fro by a light breeze; the dew lay fresh and bright on the leaves of plants, and weighed down the petals of innumerable wild-flowers; on every side the birds sang out from the branches of trees below, or chirped as they hopped through the grass, and over a gray range of sierra to the east a rosy flush preceded the sun in a cloudless sky. With a body worn down with toil and hardships,

and eyes so long accustomed to scenes of bloodshed and violence, shut in by impassable walls of swarthy granite, I could not satisfy myself with gazing and breathing in the sense of freedom. The rest and peace sank into my very soul, and yielding to a resistless impulse, I knelt down, and from the depths of my heart thanked God for life and deliverance.

ART. IV.—THE SOUTH AND HER REMEDIES.

UNDER the rule laid down in our January No., we insert the following from the pen of a distinguished southern writer and political economist. Having given the other side a fair hearing, we were bound, if for no other reason, to hear this. We consider *slavery*, and all the questions that grow out of it, legitimate to the purposes of a magazine which claims to be essentially *southern*, and that every effort to confound these questions with mere *politics* is a dangerous innovation.

[EDITOR.]

“ Cannot we of the South take measures to find what is the path of conduct that the common sense of the whole country would point to, as the one the wants of the case demanded should be pursued ? Once found, there is little difficulty or danger in following it. The united peaceful course of a great people, moving firmly to the attainment of a great national object, would carry with it a degree of moral force, far exceeding in influence and effect all that could be expected from a tumultuous outbreak of the passions. Its existence would be the certain evidence of the success that must attend it.”—*De Bow's Review* for January, 1851.

THE *common sense* of a drowning man teaches him to seize at the plank or spar which the waves may float in his way; *instinct* teaches him to grasp at straws ! But *we*,—common sense forgotten,—dead to instinct,—have sat folding our arms in almost idiotic apathy, and now, almost in the struggles of death, with every spasmodic effort of expiring life, instead of grasping at our only chance for safety, spend our last breath in hosannahs for the “glorious Union” which engulfs us. Would to *God* that the South could unite to find that path of conduct which common sense dictates ! Would to *God* that the danger which threatens the very existence of the southern portion of this once great confederacy, could rouse us from our lethargy to look upon the precipice which yawns at our feet—this *once* great confederacy, I say, for a confederacy, so far as the South is concerned, it is no longer. What are *we*?—Not yet, thank *God* ! the trampled Helots of a domineering and tyrannic mob ;—but will the advocates of submission tell us how long it shall be before we *may*—aye, *must* meet that destiny ? How long does the governmental system of calculation allow for the solving of these problems, *viz.* : What is the most direct line from freedom to slavery ? and what the shortest time in which an acting, thinking people may be brow-beat, coaxed, cheated and bribed into an utter renunciation of every right—into an abject self-annihilation ? The poor lamb which extends its neck to the slaughter-knife, and “licks the hand just raised to shed its blood,” moves not more certainly to meet its destiny, than *we*,

when, warned as we have been, threatened as we have been, menaced as we are, we calmly talk of the objections made to our institutions, and the propriety of adopting some "scheme of policy, the effect of which would be to disarm objections," such scheme having its "origin in a knowledge of the existence of these objections," and its end being "to disarm them." *Some scheme of policy!* Great *God!* and what? Have we not had schemes of policy enough, beginning with the Missouri compromise, and ending with the recent bill of abominations at which the South stands aghast, scarcely yet believing that the thing is done, and that the disgrace is saddled upon her? Schemes of policy, in which justice is forgotten, the constitution thrown aside like a soiled parchment, the *prejudices* of the North thrown in the scale against the *rights* of the South, and the *tender consciences* of our northern brethren weighed against our *very life-blood*, have, like the sword of Brennus in the scale, proved weighty enough to cast the beam against us. *Scheme of policy!* There are those who cry "peace, peace, when there is no peace." There is but one scheme of policy for us, and that is to shut our ears to suggestions which would lull us to quiet even while the vampire is sucking out our life-blood.

The writer of an article in the January number of this Review, the title of which we have adopted, as well as our opening sentence, finds no other remedy for our condition than this indefinite "scheme of policy," which is to truckle and huckster to northern aggression, until—what?—until, says he, "the public opinion of the world" may, by thus "consulting its views, and so acting as to avoid a shock to its sense of right, be *enlightened* and *modified*." Truth is mighty and must prevail. No doubt in time the public opinion of the world may be enlightened and modified; but in the mean time,

"Through what variety of untried being,
Through what new scenes and changes must we pass!"

The fate of Jamaica is an item in the world's history of some little moment to us, and that of St. Domingo a not uninteresting episode, at least so far as *we* are concerned. Are these no warnings to us? History, remarks the writer whom we are noticing, "History is said to be philosophy teaching by example. Cannot men now learn the philosophy from the example, without furnishing another example from their own history?" *God* in his mercy grant that we may! May such degradation as the one, such a tragedy as the other, never blot the pages of our annals. But that it may not, the strong arm, the strong head, and the strong heart, must combine their energies against the oppressor.

Do we ask if we have the right to resist? Let the answer come from the heart of every true man—we do not say *Southern man*, but of every *true man*—every man who, unbiased by fanaticism, uninfluenced by government patronage, who, neither holding place nor seeking place, neither bribing nor bribed, dares boldly to speak the natural impulse of a manly heart. We will not quote from the eloquent appeal of the venerable Cheves, as, roused from a long-sought

retirement, he wakes at the sound of danger, and, like the old eagle startled from his nest, utters a warning cry, which, echoing from cliff to cliff, rings afar its startling note. We will not recall the opinions of a Tucker, a McDonald, a Gordon, nor the host of southern men, who, true-hearted, pure and loyal, could neither speak nor act otherwise. Let us rather hearken to the voice of one, who, while not of us, has yet not sufficiently blinded his reason to join the hue and cry of northern abolition and free-soilism; one who, though born in New-England, yet retains enough of the pure spirit of his patriot fathers to look justice in the face and honestly speak her dictates, though the answering cry should be, "stone him, stone him!"

We quote from the speech of the Hon. Caleb Cushing, delivered in Newburyport, July 4th, 1850.—"We of the North [he remarks] are strong in numbers, in votes, in physical force:—is it unionism to violate the letter and spirit of the Constitution, and thus to place the South in the alternative of the dishonor to be incurred by passive submission to the unjust act of a majority, or to imputed factiousness by resistance to it? No, that is disunionism, as this day, if rightly read, may serve to admonish us. For what is the Declaration of Independence? We speak of it as the commencement of our nationality. How? Was it not also a solemn act of disunion, the declaration of an oppressed minority,—the colonies,—that they would no longer continue united with an oppressive majority, consisting of the rest of the British Empire? Think you that no dear bonds of common country, of religious and political association, were sundered by the Declaration of Independence? Ay, many; for England still bore, even on the lips of our forefathers, the affectionate appellation of *home*. But ten years of actual or intended unconstitutional aggression on their rights,—ten years of depreciation and denunciation of their character and conduct,—ten years of legislative warfare on their interests, served to obliterate from the minds of the minority all impressions of common nationality with the majority, and produced that Declaration of Independence. And although England set a price on the heads of John Hancock and Thomas Cushing as traitors, yet they well might, and they did retort, that the aggressor, and not the aggrieved,—that the violator of the public compact, not the victim of the violation,—that the oppressive majority, not the oppressed minority,—was responsible for the dissolution of the union between the British colonies and the British metropolis."

And who would be responsible for disunion *now*? As in England the voice of a Pitt and a Barre dared to speak the exculpation and defence of the slandered and oppressed colonies, which struggled for existence against her grinding oppressions, so even now, in New-England, can some be found to remonstrate against the "meddlesome madness" of her procedures, and the "fanatical aggression and fanatical hatred" which characterize her course towards the South. If our fathers had cause for disunion with England, tenfold now are the right and the duty which point us to a similar course. In the words of the Hon. A. G. Brown, of Mississippi, "There are things more terrible than disunion, and one of these is tame submis-

sion to outrageous wrong. If it has really come to this, that the Southern States dare not assert and maintain their equal position in the Union, for fear of dissolving the Union, then I am free to say, that the Union ought to be dissolved. If the noble edifice erected by our fathers has become so rickety, worm-eaten and decayed, that it is in danger of falling every time the Southern States assemble to ask for justice,* then the sooner it is pulled down the better."

The same gentleman, speaking of the divers votes taken for abolishing slavery in the District of Columbia, continues:—"Look to these things. Look to the Fugitive Slave law in Massachusetts, Ohio, and elsewhere. Look to the late extraordinary triumph of Mr. Seward, in New-York. Look to the success of the free-soilers in the late elections. Listen to the notes of preparation everywhere in the Northern States, and tell me if men do not wilfully deceive you when they say that the slavery agitation is over? I tell you, fellow-citizens, it is not over. It never will be over, so long as you continue to recede before the pressure of northern power. You cannot secure your rights, you cannot save the Union or the Constitution, by following the timid counsels of the submissionists. Pursue these counsels, and they will lead to a sacrifice of all we hold dear,—of life, liberty, property, and the Union itself. By submission you may secure, not a union, but a *connection* with the North. It will be such a connection as exists between Ireland and England, Poland and Russia, Hungary and Austria. It will not,—it cannot be the Union of our fathers,—it cannot be a union of equals.

"Well! and what next? 'Some scheme of policy,' forsooth! Some Convention of the *states generally*, where the northern majority may, as usual, crush us, as it were, between a thumb and finger! Some 'medium!' Some platform! Some *juste milieu*! Heaven protect us when such are the voices of southern men!"

"Oh! they come o'er my memory
As doth the raven o'er th' infected house,
Boding to all."

"These truths we speak may lack some gentleness;" but in these times,

"When Liberty plucks Justice by the nose,"

when our opponents, regulating their course and consciences by "the higher law," scoff at constitutions, trample on our rights, and seem to think the whole,

"Admirable pleasures and very honest knaveries,"

what can we do, but strike with such strength as *God* has given us, and pray that Heaven protect the right! *Dieu et mon droit.*

* Oliver Twist asking for more! Behold the horror, dismay, and conscientious indigitation of all worthy superintendents and assistants.

V.—INDIA AND THE HINDOOS.*

Of the three peninsulas which terminate the continent of Asia, India is by far the most considerable. With a lofty range of mountains, rising 27,000 feet above the level of the sea,—with water-falls that “quadruple the depth of the cataract of Niagara”—with a population which can only be computed by drops of water in the ocean, or the sand on the sea-shore—with a literature that equals, if it does not surpass, the most admired productions of Greece and Rome—with a system of religion whose principles are as monstrous as its origin is remote—with the classic Ganges and the “Holy City of Benares,” around which cluster associations as sacred to the Hindoos as the Jordan, or the Pool of Siloam, or Jerusalem to the Hebrew, or the Christian ;—in whatever aspect we view this great country, its grandeur and beauty cannot fail to arrest the attention and excite the interest of every cultivated mind.

Indeed the subject is so vast, that huge folios might be written, instead of a brief sketch, which is all that can be reasonably expected in the pages of a Review. In order to do anything like justice, we must divide it into several different departments.

1.—THE EARLY HISTORY OF INDIA.

In nothing are we so apt to be disappointed as in attempting to ascertain the early history of a country. As a matter of course, no sensible man will place absolute belief in mere hearsay or traditional accounts. Beyond written documentary evidence, (and not always in this,) he will look with natural and just suspicion, inasmuch as his own experience and observation will convince him that whatever does not rest upon fact, or the evidence of the senses, will possess more or less of poetry and fiction. As long as there seems to be some probability in their legends, he will be disposed to lean with a favorable disposition towards them ; as for example, when we are informed that Romulus and Remus were suckled by a she-wolf, the mind will give some assent to this assertion, because we know that it is not improbable, or at least not impossible, for human life to be sustained by the milk of a wild animal ! But how can we censure the judgment of one who bases his incredulity on the greater probability of its being *false*, on the ground of the peculiar propensity of the wolf to devour, instead of affording nourishment to helpless innocence ? Is it to be supposed that the wolf has a stronger instinctive predilection for the flavor of a *lamb* than that of a *baby* ? We do not know—but we would not be disposed to place much confidence in the affection of a mother who would consign her offspring to the tender

* India and the Hindoos; being a popular view of the Geography, History, Government, Manners, Customs, Literature and Religion of that ancient people; with an account of Christian Missions among them. By F. De Ward, late Missionary at Madras, and Member of the “American Oriental Society.” Baker & Scribner, New-York. 1850.

mercies of an animal with such suspicious-looking grinders. This historical statement, then, which is mentioned by all the Roman historians, is not to be implicitly believed, because the probability of its being true is not so great as its improbability. It is therefore only an historical assertion, and not an historical *fact*, which we take to be a very different thing. And this leads us to say a word or two on the glorious uncertainty of *historical record*.

We would not be understood to mean that what is recorded in books and MSS., and placed within the archives of a nation, does not deserve more consideration than a fabulous or traditional legend—but we think it must be evident to all, that no great degree of confidence should necessarily attach to these documents—considered by themselves—for it is as easy to write or print a falsehood as to speak it. But a distinction must be made between *sacred and profane* records. If we are asked, why we believe that the walls of Jericho fell down at the blowing of a ram's-horn, as stated in the Bible? because we believe it to be an *inspired volume*, and whatever it contains must necessarily be true, and its statements are to be considered *historical facts*. Our belief in its authenticity is a substitute for the want of the evidence of our own senses, and is the best and only argument which the nature of the case will admit of. But if we are told by an Indian historian that the Indian Empire was founded long before the creation of the world—that they are the descendants of the sun and moon—that “the God Rama being in pursuit of his enemy Ravenna, who had forcibly carried off the Divine Goddess Sita, sped through the vaulted heavens, having his sword drawn, ready to deal the death-blow of revenge, and in forgetfulness of his direful wrath, by an incautious wave of his mighty weapon, he struck the moon with the point thereof, and severed from that beautiful orb a chain of verdant mountains, which immediately fell to the earth,—and in proof of his statement, will point out the portion of the moon from which the mountains fell.” Who but “moon-struck” people are expected to give the slightest credit to these assertions? They savor so much of the extravagance of a poetical imagination, and are so utterly at variance with reason or probability, that we do not hesitate to pronounce it entirely false. With these remarks, which naturally suggest themselves to the mind of every one who reads the history of all Eastern nations, we will proceed with our subject.

The first work which contains any authentic history of the Hindoos are the *Vedas*, which were written about the time of David, King of Israel, and the “Institutes of Menu,” which inform us that there were originally two great families, distinguished as the *Sun* and *Moon*, who were constantly struggling for the mastery. Other accounts inform us that there were ten kingdoms in India speaking different languages, five of which occupied the northern and five the southern districts. But in this they all agree, that neither the present natives of India, nor their immediate ancestors, were the aborigines of the country. Of all the Orientalists of modern times, the one who is entitled to most respect is unquestionably Sir William Jones. With a love

of learning which embraced the whole circle of literature, and which was only surpassed by his ardent devotion to truth, this truly great and virtuous man expended many of the most valuable years of his life in the study of Indian literature. From the advantages of his position, as the first judicial functionary in Bengal, he was enabled to unlock the treasure-houses of information which had hitherto been closed against all classes of outside barbarians; and from the modesty and cautious temper which he displayed in his investigations, we may confidently rely upon the veracity of his statements. In his opinion, the true date of Indian history begins about three or four centuries before the Christian era—all before this period being more or less involved in doubt and mystery. Since his untimely death, which occurred while engaged in the arduous duties of his profession, towards the close of the last century, many distinguished Orientalists, such as Ward, Robertson and Milford, have added their contributions from this vastfield. Their writings contain much valuable information; but according to their own confession, they are unable to throw any light upon the early history of the country—deeming that to be entirely impossible, unless, indeed, the researches which are now in progress for the interpretation of Egyptian hieroglyphics can effect that object.

The learned historian, Diodorus, states that *Semiramis* fitted out an expedition for the purpose of invading this far-famed country, and after spending several years in preparing to carry on this gigantic enterprise, she was opposed by the Hindoo general with an army which met her on the eastern side of the Indus, and caused such terrible havoc and confusion in the ranks of the enemy, that they were compelled to sound a retreat to the bridge of boats, in which they had but recently crossed in all the pomp and pride and circumstance of glorious war.

How, indeed, could an army of half a million of men and cavalry, though their necks were clothed with thunder and laughed at the shaking of spears, oppose a regiment of those alligator-hided monsters, which tore up huge trees with their trunks, and turned them into implements of destruction? After attempting in vain to cheer up the broken spirits of her vanquished army, she placed herself at their head with that heroic, though insane valor, which distinguished the warriors of antiquity, and received a mortal wound, and sank to rise no more.

The next expedition of which history makes mention, was that of Darius, the Persian monarch, who, in the fifth century before the Christian era, undertook to explore the country, and proceeded so far in subjugating the provinces of Mooltan and Lahore, as to be able to exact large tributes in gold and other valuable commodities. His dominion, however, was of short duration, and the Indian Empire was again restored to its original independence. But the most memorable and disastrous of all the expeditions which were carried on against India, was that of Alexander the Great. After having reduced the Persian Empire in subjection to his despotic will, he crossed the Indus with a view of compelling the inhabitants of that country to pay him the

tribute which had previously been claimed by Darius. In commencing his march towards the Ganges he was met by the Hindoo general, Porus, with an army of the natives, who turned the tide of war against him—which, together with a mutiny among his soldiers, brought about a total abortion of his long-cherished schemes. In returning to his own capital, he performed the extraordinary feat of sailing down the Indus, and enjoying the glorious prospect of the Arabian Sea. For once in his career of conquest he met with an ignominious defeat, and he could boast with Imperial Caesar, that “to go, to see, and to conquer,” was with him one and the same thing—he who had made himself master of the world shed bitter tears that there were no more worlds for him to conquer, and died in a drunken brawl!

From the time of Alexander to that of the Mahomedan rule, India was in the enjoyment of comparative peace and repose, which render her annals dull and uninteresting. Next succeeded the Mogul dynasty in the person of Baber, surnamed “The Tiger,” about the year 1525, A.D., and was followed by Akber Khan, of whose wise and virtuous government, a native historian says in the figurative language of the East: “*That his memory still floats upon the tears of all India.*”

For want of space, we must conclude our remarks upon this department of our subject, by observing, that the reign of all their rulers was distinguished for nothing more worthy of commemoration, than a diabolical ambition in every succeeding ruler to surpass his predecessor in creating the most awful massacres of which history makes any mention. Tamerlane, surnamed the “Destroyer,” was said to have massacred a hundred thousand natives in a single hour. Timur, “the fire-brand of the universe,” Aurungzebe and Nadir Shah, were heroes of the same school—all of them demons in human shape, who gloried in wholesale butcheries, without the least regard to age, sex, or condition.

2.—ITS GOVERNMENT, LAWS AND LITERATURE.

The period at which India becomes interesting to the European or American reader, dates from the siege of Trinchinopoly, by Lord Clive. It is true, that several centuries before, Portuguese and Dutch navigators had made many voyages to Sumatra and Java, which they afterwards extended to settlements on the eastern coast of Hindostan; but our British ancestors, who were always on the look-out for rich plunder, captured their vessels on their return voyage, and made such a splendid display of calicoes, pearls, porcelain, ebony, &c., that the eagle eyes of Queen Elizabeth were attracted towards the advantages to be derived by the establishment of a company of merchants, to whom she granted an exclusive charter, “to trade between the Cape of Good Hope and the Straits of Magellan,” on the express condition, however, that no *gentleman* should have any connection with the management of its concerns. “The East India Company,” at first a mere trading corporation, became

a formidable body, and possessed themselves, successively, of Madras, Bombay, and Calcutta, in the course of the seventeenth century. They gradually placed Benares, Seringapatam, Ceylon, and many other places, within the dominion of their all-grasping ambition. The splendid articles of Macaulay, on the Lives of Lord Clive and Warren Hastings, (with which, we presume, every one is familiar,) so completely absorb all that is interesting with regard to the rise and progress of British rule in that country, as to render it quite unnecessary for any other Reviewer to expatiate upon them. It is not to be supposed that the Indian Empire succumbed to the authority of their British masters, without many long and desperate struggles; but it seems to be the destiny of the Anglo-Saxon race to overcome all opposition, by their invincible valor, and the hereditary love of power and conquest, which has marked their whole career. For a long time a doubtful contest was waged between the bull-dog courage of the English and the game-cock gallantry of the French, which resulted in the complete triumph of the former; and the flag of St. George now floats proudly over every port in the peninsula. With regard to the government of the English over their enslaved subjects, there has been a great variety of opinion. The English historians themselves do not pretend that it has been immaculate—but attempt to justify their enormities on the old ground, the “tyrant’s plea,” of necessity and state policy. Clive, who expressed his astonishment at his own honesty in neglecting to plunder those lacs of rupees, about which his companions in arms showed no “compunctionous visitings,” finally committed suicide in a fit of remorse. His successor, Hastings, whose cruelties were of so astounding a character as to compel his own countrymen to call him to account, was acquitted, not so much because it was believed that he was innocent of the charges which were brought against him, but on account of their weariness and disgust with the whole matter. From Hastings the “unscrupulous,” to Dalhousie the “foolish,” the whole of the principles and policy of their government may be summed up in the words of one of their own poets, who lived for many years in India :

“ We are always taking—and we never give ;
 We care not if they die, or if they live.
 Hard taskmasters ! Beyond a Pharaoh’s law,
 We first withhold, and then we take the straw,
 Yet look to see the tale of tricks the same,
 If not, 'tis them, and not ourselves, to blame.
 For joy or wretchedness—for weal or woe,
 We’ve one sole sentence—“ *Pay us what you owe.*”

It is the opinion of those who have studied most profoundly the literature of the East, that the *Sanskrit* is the basis of the many dialects which are spoken in the different provinces of India. The Hindoos, themselves, claim for it a divine origin, and name it *Devanagari*, or the “ Writing of the Gods.” As it is quite natural, they hold it in the same veneration that we entertain for the *Holy Script*.

tures. Sir William Jones thinks it "more perfect in its structure than the Greek, and more copious than the Latin"—in which opinion he is supported by the most distinguished Orientalists, since the untimely death of this eminent scholar and jurist.

The most important works of the Hindoos are the *Vedas*, which are divided into four classes. The first is called the *Rig-Veda*, which treats of the first cause of all things, of angels and demons, and all spiritual beings. The second, called *Yager-Veda*, treats of the ceremonies of religion. The third, or *Sama-Veda*, comprises hymns to their infernal deities, great and small. The fourth, and last, is called the *Atharoan-Veda*, which is not considered an inspired writing, contains their system of mental philosophy and metaphysics. Without enlarging upon these works, which are included in piles of huge folios, of the most gigantic dimensions, we will give one brief specimen, which we will leave to the reader to decide for himself, whether it contains more absurdity than sublimity.

" Possessed of innumerable heads, innumerable eyes, innumerable feet—*Brahma* fills the heavens and the earth. He is whatever was, whatever will be, his command is as the waters of life, he is the source of universal motion, he is the light of the moon, the sun, the fire, and the lightning. The *Veda* is the breath of his nostrils, the primary elements are his sight—the agitation of human affairs is his laughter, his sleep is the destruction of the universe. In different forms he cherishes the creatures ; in the form of the air, he preserves them ; in the form of water, he satisfies them ; in the form of the sun, he assists them ; in the affairs of life, and in that of the moon, he refreshes them in sleep ; the progression of time forms his footsteps ; all the gods, to him, are as sparks of fire. To him I bow—I bow."

Credat Judaeus Apellas, non ego.

Next in importance are the *Shastras*, the great works of Hindoo science, and are the text-books from which the Hindoo youth acquires the principles of the moral code, the science of architecture, law, logic, astrology, medicine, &c. Next come the *Pooranas*, which is the name given to their great mythological poems. It is compared, for its beauty, to a "deep and noble forest, rich in delicious fruits and fragrant flowers, shaded and watered by perpetual springs." But their greatest poem is the *Ramayana*, by the poet Valmiki. We will give a fair sample in the introduction, of which it is said, "that he who sings and hears this poem continually, has attained to the highest state of enjoyment, and will, finally, be equal to the gods." The outline of this poem is sketched by the pen of an eminent Orientalist :

" At different times, Boohdeir, or the earth, is represented as oppressed with monsters and demons. Unable any longer to bear their enormities, she enters the presence of *Vishnu*, entreats his interposition, and receives his promise that he will become incarnate, and destroy her enemies. Hence the many incarnations of that second of the *Triad*, as, for example, fish, tortoise, boar, man-lion, and ox. After describing these six incarnate forms of *Vishnu*, the author proceeds to the seventh, as *Rama*, son of Dusaratha, king of Oude. His wife is born a princess, and, in

process of time, they are united in marriage. Her father, Dusaratha, becomes old and infirm, and wishes Rama to take the reins of government into his hands. Rama replies: 'It cannot be—I have not been born for such a worldly purpose as this. I must call my wife, Seeta, along with me; we must reside, like ascetics, in the desert, and it will presently transpire for what purpose I appear among men.' He does so. They build a hermitage, and spend their time amongst the beasts of the forest. The giant, Ravenna, king of Lunka and Ceylon—the monster with ten heads and as many arms, and to destroy whom it is the design of the incarnation, hears this intelligence, and is determined, in the struggle, to give Rama as much trouble as he can. Having the power of changing his form, he assumes that of an ascetic, and whilst Rama is absent from the hermitage, he appears at the door, and entreats Seeta to give him alms. When approaching to bestow the bounty desired, he seizes, carries her off, and puts her in prison. On returning to the hermitage, Rama cannot find his wife, sinks into a sea of grief, utters the most piteous cries, and passes through those deep emotions of sorrow which characterize Eastern nations. To assist him in his conflicts with the giants, the angels are represented as becoming incarnate as *monkeys*, and Hunumunta is their leader. As the latter is worshiped in every town, and almost every village of India, it is evident he is a deity of no small consequence. Finding Rama in a state of despondency, he becomes his prime minister, and undertakes to visit Lunka, and find out the circumstances of Seeta. He assumes the form of a rat, and pursues his circuitous route through the houses of the enemy, till he discovers the prison where Seeta is confined. Like a faithful servant, he delivers to her the message of his master, and receives from Seeta her answers in return. After having emerged from the prison, he assumes his proper form—is seen scampering over the walls and houses—and excites much alarm among the giants in Lunka. Whether his visit was an omen of good or evil, they could not understand. At length they seized him as a prisoner, and brought him to the court of Ravenna, to be examined. As they would not give him a seat, but compelled him to stand, he took his tremendous tail, and coiled it, cable-like, till it rose to such a height as enabled him to sit down on an equality with the throne of Ravenna. In reply to the question put to him by the king, respecting his name, parentage and design, in visiting Lunka, he gave such shrewd and ingenious answers, that he sets the whole court in bursts of laughter against the sovereign. Ravenna is frantic with rage, and asks what is to be done with this monkey? Some proposed one thing, and some another; but all agreed in the suggestion, that he made such a boast of his tail, that it ought to be set on fire. Accordingly, all the old clothes, the rags and paper to be found in Lunka, are put in requisition, to make a flambeau of his tail. They cover it with tar and pitch, and other combustibles—set it on fire—and then liberate the prisoner, that they may have a day of frolic. No sooner does Hunumunta regain his liberty, than he commences a race—now through the fields of corn, and sets them on fire—then through the farm-yards, and over the hay-ricks, and puts them in a blaze—then over the walls, and through the houses, and kindles a fire which is not easily extinguished. (Verily, since Samson's foxes sallied out on a similar excursion—there never was the like of this!) Never did such an incendiary visit Lunka before. To save their city from destruction, the giants now pursue him to put out the torch which they had lighted. Hunumunta ascends the tower of a temple, and hides himself in its summit; and when he finds it well filled with giants, he throws it down with violence, and destroys them all. He makes his escape—dips his tail in the sea—and returns to Rama. After reporting

the exploits of his embassy, they assemble an army of monkeys—throw a bridge across the sea, from the continent to Ceylon—and lay siege to the fortress of Ravenna. The war is commenced, and prodigies of valor are performed on both sides, till Rama kills the monster, Ravenna, liberates his wife, Seta, and delivers the earth from the giants, whose enormities cause her to groan."

This is one of their greatest epic poems, and is sung by their wandering bards—like that "blind, old vagabond, Homer"—to millions of admiring hearers.

We will give a brief extract in blank verse. "Rama tells Dusaratha that he would not gratify his wishes in the matter of succeeding him upon the throne of Oude, but must retire to a forest; the old man protested against his daughter's accompanying him." On which she addresses her husband in this touching strain :

Son of the venerable parent ! hear,
'Tis Seta speaks. Say, art thou not assured
That to each being his allotted time
And portion, as his merit, are assigned,
And that a wife her husband's portion shares ?
Therefore, with thee this forest lot I claim.
A woman's bliss is found, not in the smile
Of father, mother, friend, or in herself:
Her husband is her only portion here,
Her heaven hereafter. If thou, indeed,
Depart this day into the forest drear,
I will precede and smooth the thorny way.
O chide me not; for where the husband is,
Within the palace, or the stately car,
Or wandering in the air, in every state
The shadow of his feet is her abode.
My mother and my father having left,
I have no dwelling-place distinct from thee.
Forbid me not. For as a gay recluse,
Or thee attending, happy shall I feel,
Within this honey-scented grove to roam,
For thou even here cans't nourish and protect ;
And therefore other friend I cannot need.
A residence in Heaven, O ! Raghurn,
Without thy presence would no joy afford.
Therefore, though rough the path, I must, I will,
The forest penetrate, the wild abode
Of monkeys, elephants, and playful fawns.
Pleased to embrace thy feet, I will reside
In the rough forest, as my father's house.
Void of all other wish, supremely thine,
Permit me this request—I will not grieve—
I will not burden thee—refuse me not;
But should'st thou, Raghurn, this prayer deny,
Know, I resolve on *death*—if torn from thee.

Perhaps the sagacious critic may discover some resemblance between these lines and Milton's Eve in addressing her husband :

" O sole ! in whom my thoughts find all repose—
My glory ! My perfection !"

Or the tender supplications of the Iphigenia of Euripides in beseeching her father to withhold the cruel purpose of sacrificing her on the altar. The Iliad and the *Aeneid* are mere fragments, when compared with these gigantic epics. Some of them are said to be two millions of lines in length—only a small portion being given to the inhabitants of the earth. “The rest are reserved for the gods.”

Their *jurisprudence* consists of the *Institutes of Menu*, the *Vedas* and the *Smriti-Shastras*. The number of folios in which they are comprised is almost incredible; and are considered by the Hindoos to be “the ground-work of all judicial procedure in this world.” They have also moral poets, who are deemed “an incarnation of wisdom.” *Tiruvullavar* is at the head of this class, and is the author of that wonderful production, called the *Cural*. We will only give a few specimens, which are written in the *terza-rima* of Dante :

As the hook rules the elephant, so he
In wisdom firm, his earthly passions rule,
Who hopes to flourish in the soil of Heaven.

Refer not virtue to another day;
Receive her now, and at thy dying hour
She'll prove thy never-dying friend.

Sweet is the pipe and sweet the lute, they say,
They who have never heard their children's tongues
In infant prattle lisp.

Small as a grain of millet
Though it be—large as the towering palm
A benefit to grateful eyes appears.

That virtue which in all relations holds
Unchangeable in nature, that alone
Deserves the name of justice.

It is the glory of the just to stand
Like an adjusted balance, duly poised,
Nor swerve to either side.

These moral precepts, it will be remembered, were composed without the aid of the lights of revelation—for they were written fifteen hundred years before the Christian era. Their *Proverbs* are generally pointed and pithy, but do not possess any marked difference from those of other nations. We think that the *Proverbs of Solomon* and *Sancho-Panza* are quite equal to those of their profoundest sages. We will cite a few of them :

If one only knows the matter, it is a *secret*—if two, it is *public*.
Learn to thrive—but *forget it*.

If the ass be beaten with a bundle of sugar-cane, will he *thereby* taste its sweetness?

Of what use can the news of the country be to a frog in a rock?
Will the barking dog catch game?

Taxes and gruel will continually grow thicker.

While we meditate one thing, God determines another.

A dog is courageous—in his own kennel.

Taciturnity makes no blunders.

No one was ever ruined by speaking the truth.

“He that is slow to anger,” says Solomon, “is better than the mighty—and he that ruleth his own spirit, is stronger than he that taketh a city.”

Now for Sancho :

“Let him play, that knows the way—and St. Peter at Rome, is well off at home.”

Their *Fables* are very much like those of Esop, and it is supposed by some that they were borrowed from that Prince of Fabulists. But time and space would fail us to speak of the “Nannese” and the “Nulvurle,” and the “Nethenareverlukkam,” and huge piles of other folios, of which it might be said with Oriental extravagance: “We suppose if all their books were gathered together—the world itself would not contain them.” We must close our remarks upon this department of our subject, by using the language of Sir William Jones: “Wherever we direct our attention to Hindoo literature, the notion of infinity presents itself, and surely the longest life would not suffice for a single perusal of works that rise and swell protuberant, like the Himalayahs, above the bulkiest compositions of every language beyond the confines of India.”

3.—OF SCIENCE AND RELIGION AMONG THE HINDOOS.

The most striking peculiarity of Hindoo science is the circumstance of having all their works on scientific subjects written in verse. This extends even to their works on Medicine, Grammar, and all practical affairs. Their knowledge of *Mathematics* seems to have been much greater than that of the Greeks and Romans, who adopted the clumsy method of computation by the letters of the Alphabet instead of the ten ciphers, which are used by all modern nations, and by the Hindoos, who used them from time immemorial, although the Arabians have the credit of being the inventors. In *Algebra* and *Geometry*, they are also considerably versed. With *Trigonometry* and *Astronomy*, they seem to have been familiar at a very early period—the latter they claim to have received by a special *revelation* from Heaven, about two millions one hundred and sixty-four thousand eight hundred and ninety-nine years ago. For *Astrology*, they entertained a profound reverence, and were as superstitious as the Chaldees, or any of the old star-gazers. Of *Geography*, they were most profoundly ignorant. According to their theory, the earth was circular and flat—“like the flower of the water-lily, in which the petals project towards each other.” They believe that the gods inhabit those vast mountains which surround them—“the furthermost of which is bounded by a salt sea. Beyond this sea are other seas:—the sea of sugar-cane juice—of spirituous liquors, of clarified butter—of curds of milk, and of sweet-water—each surrounding a separate continent; beyond all which, is a country of gold as large as the rest of the earth; then, a circular chain of mountains, and then the land of darkness, or Hell.” Sir William Jones says, that their *Doctors* were mere empirics and quacks. They had no faith in the Sangrado system of “blood-letting and hot-water”—deeming that life consists of blood, and all “letting” of it to be an “abstraction of vitality.”

For fevers they used bark, roots, fruit or flowers—but they generally adopted the starvation system—compelling their patients to fast from one to twenty days. It was usually the opinion of their ablest practitioners, that after the twentieth day it was entirely useless to apply any further remedies—the patient happily falling into that delightful slumber which knows no waking. Of late years, medical colleges, hospitals, and polytechnic schools have been established, in which they teach chemistry, galvanism, electricity, &c.—but they are incredulous about the application of it to the conveyance of news. When told of it by a European, they exclaim: “Your honor says so, and therefore it must be so—but *I would much prefer to see it.*”

Their *lawyers* are as numerous as blackberries, but they employ their own *vakeels* or *pettifoggers* in preference to the English *barristers*, whose enormous fees, they say, are ruinous to a poor man. Their system of laws, however, it is thought by those who are most familiar with it, bears a favorable comparison with that of every other nation.

“*Agriculture*,” says a distinguished Orientalist, “stands foremost among the pursuits of native Hindoos. Two modes of cultivation are practised, *wet* and *dry*, the former being devoted principally to rice and indigo, the land requiring to be watered by means of tanks with their high, strong embankments, and wells from twenty to three hundred feet deep, while upon the dry lands are the sugar-cane, barley, wheat, and various other grains, fruits and vegetables. The plough used by the farmer consists of two rude sticks, or one if sufficiently crooked, with an iron spike at the end as a share, which the ploughman guides with one hand, while he uses the other in directing the movements of the cattle; thus making a rut or scratch in the field similar to the movement just beneath the soil of a strong finger. Entering a village at an early hour of the day, you will see the farmer going to his toil, bearing upon his shoulder yoke and plough, which he steadies with one hand, while with the other he holds the rope-reins fastened to his tiny bullocks. The sowing is as clumsy as the ploughing. The common drill-machine has three pieces of sticks, that make scratches about an inch and a half in depth, and the seeds drop into the scratches through three hollow bits of bamboo, that are immediately behind the scratching sticks. These bamboos are united to one rude vessel at the top, containing the seeds. The larger seeds are sown by means of a bamboo, fastened to a drill by a string, and having a little cup at the end. A woman attends to this bamboo, holding it directly over any one of the three scratches into which she wishes the seed to fall, with one hand, and dropping the seed into the cup with the other. The *covering plough* follows, which is a horizontal stick, drawn along by two bullocks, and by being pressed against the ground, covers the seed with mould. The operation of sowing requires the attention of four persons, and the labor of four bullocks. The business of the *harrow* is performed by an instrument like a ladder, on which the husbandman stands, while rough bushes attached to it assist in smoothing the ground. Instead of threshing machines, the rice is beaten out of the husk, the

pulse trodden out by the cattle, and the small grain threshed with a staff. These implements are the same that have been in use throughout the land from time immemorial! Rice, wheat, barley, indigo, opium, sugar, and tobacco, are among their principal productions. The productions of the *loom* are muslins, chintz, silks, carpets, calicoes and shawls, which are proverbial for the beauty of their coloring—although in texture they are not equal to those of Europe and our own country.

Their *popular games* are similar to those of America: such as chess, backgammon, marbles, cock-fighting, and other amusements which are of a more demoralizing character. Tiger and elephant-hunting are some of their most manly and dangerous sports—a nabob often turning out with a retinue of a hundred strong. *Gymnastics* and *jugglery* are extremely popular, and what we classically denominate *hocus-pocus*, such, for example, as cutting the throat of a *pig* in the full vigor of life, and then restoring him to all his pristine swinish dignity, is applauded to the echo. Their fondness for *music* is one of their most peculiar traits. Sir William Jones, who seems to have had as ardent a love for music as for every thing that was of an intellectual or spiritual character, relates a story which he received from a learned Hindoo, "who told him that he had seen the most venomous and malignant snakes leave their holes upon hearing tunes on a flute, which gave them peculiar delight. And an intelligent Persian, who, repeating his story again and again, and permitted him to write it down from his own lips, declared that he had more than once been present when a celebrated lutanist, named *Balbal*, was playing to a large company, in a grove near Shiraz, when he distinctly saw the nightingales trying to vie with the musician—sometimes warbling on the trees, sometimes fluttering from branch to branch, as if they wished to approach the instrument whence the melody proceeded; and at length dropping on the ground in a kind of ecstacy, from which they were soon raised by a change of note." Despite their love of the marvellous, the argument in favor of the Christian system, drawn from *miracles*, is almost powerless upon their minds. Over against one miracle of the Gospel record, multitudes are contained in their sacred books, and performed before their eyes. Their judgment may tell them that it is jugglery, and so they say may have been those of the Founder of Christianity. To pluck at mountains, and hurl them to and fro at will—to cut off parts of the moon, and cast them to the earth—to fish up sacred books from the bottom of the sea—these are but a few among the deeds of the Hindoo deities, and what more of miracle can any religion allege?

This objection against the *special* divinity of Christianity is often and skillfully used by the Brahmin to parry the blow aimed against his favorite creed, and to gain for the system he teaches a stronger hold upon the faith of its credulous and attached devotees.

The word *caste* was originally introduced by the Portuguese to designate the different classes of society. The first rank is that of *Brahmin* and the *Kshatiras*, the *Veishas* and the *Soodras*, with various subdivisions; the lowest of which is the *Pariah*, who, together with all foreigners, are considered the offscourings of society.

With regard to the religion of the Hindoos, as they lay claim to three hundred and thirty millions of divinities of a subordinate character, we cannot be expected to say anything concerning them. Their "great guns" were *Brahma*, *Vishnu* and *Siva*, who constitute the *Triad*. *Brahma* is styled the "Great Father," and *Vishnu*, the "Purifier," and *Siva*, the "Destroyer," or the Devil. The peculiarities of these were of so impious and disgusting a character, that we must beg to be excused for even alluding to them. We will only say, that the practical working of their whole system leads to the utmost depravity of morals and manners. The earliest authentic date of which we know any thing concerning the missionary enterprise in India, was in the fourteenth century, under the auspices of *François Xavier* and other Jesuits of the Romish Church. Bishop *Heber* is, however, of opinion, that *St. Thomas* was the first who preached the Gospel, and suffered martyrdom in that country—a church having been erected near the city of Madras in honor of that apostle. The first charter for the establishment of Protestant missions was in the reign of *William the Third*, in the year A. D. 1701. This was followed by the "Danish Missionary Society" in 1705. Since this time almost every denomination of Christians in England and on the continent, as well as in our own country, have established missionary societies in various portions of India. But we must conclude our article in the words of an American Missionary who has recently returned from that country :

"The whole missionary corps of India, able-bodied, and ripe for action, cannot exceed *one hundred and fifty*, and speaking twenty different languages. When I tell my readers that the whole number of converts to Christianity, excluding the members of the Church of Rome, cannot exceed ten thousand, let him not be surprised and disheartened, but rather be thankful that against such fearful odds such results have been gained. England requires two hundred thousand well-disciplined troops to subject to her dominion the flesh and blood of India. And now because a few soldiers of the cross have not taken from Satan and all his principalities and powers in these his high places of abomination and sin, this his most loyal province, and are not now with the millions of its redeemed people, shouting high and jubilant songs of conquest, there are, forsooth, those who begin to wonder at the protraction of the fight, and to despond of conquest. If any are disposed to despond, let them remember Calvary, and say, "From the cross came the crown—out of the grave came heaven—through the gibbet's shame came the Church's glory." As it was in Judea, so is it in India. Though there be night, "the morning cometh." This must be our motto to warm our zeal and nerve our arm—to cheer our despondency, and strengthen our faith : **"FAINT, YET PURSUING."**

NOTE.—Since writing the above article, we have seen in the October number of the "Westminster Review," a critique on a Hindoo drama, entitled "Vicramorvase"—by *Kalidasa*. Edited for the use of the students of the East India College. And "Maha-vira-charita," or the History of *Rama*; a Sanscrit play, by a member of the Asiatic Society of Paris. The history of the Hindoo drama is discussed at considerable length—introducing us into a new world of romance and poetry.

ART. VI.—THE EARTH AND MAN.

THE STUDY AND KNOWLEDGE OF NATURE, AND MORE PARTICULARLY
THE STUDY AND KNOWLEDGE OF THE EARTH AND MAN.*

[THE following paper was delivered by the Editor, as an address before the *Chiosophic Society* of the *College of Charleston*, at its anniversary celebration, on the 15th of November last. A copy of it, on behalf of the Society, was requested for publication; but being on the eve of departure from Charleston, we promised to supervise and re-write, at our leisure moments, in New-Orleans, the manuscript which had been prepared in the short space of three or four days. Having waited three months for these *leisure* moments in vain, and being hopeless, in the multiplicity of our engagements, of ever having them at command, we have concluded, at last, to let the paper go with all its imperfections on its head. Hardy as the resolution is, we are, at the same time, unwilling to trust it as a *separate pamphlet*, with all official pomp and circumstance, to invite criticism; but prefer it should assume the shape of an article in a magazine, perchance to be overlooked, or at most skimmed, amid a mass of more interesting material. We beg pardon to our friends of the Society for such a liberty; but hardly think they will be *inconsolable*. At all events, their *treasury* will escape a round tax by our resolution; and if they will insist upon reading the document, the gentlemen may have the worst of the bargain. As we hate apologies—here they end; and here, most likely, would be the *omega* of the whole matter, if we had any other article at hand to occupy the pages that are reserved for this.]

IN the limited sphere of an address, I can hope to do little more than glance at the mere outlines of a subject I have selected for myself, and which may, in brief, be represented as “The History of the Study and Knowledge of Nature, and more particularly the Study and Knowledge of the Earth and Man.”

If I can, from the great field which opens itself infinitely out, here seize upon a few prominent points of interest and attraction—flowers from a garden where all is oriental luxuriance and beauty—and present them in any manner, however feeble, which may excite your further prosecution of the study, I shall deem myself abundantly happy.

Gentlemen, in the fields of nature—the natural world—how boundless and inexhaustible are the subjects which present themselves in progression to the mind of man, and how, in comparison with their exquisite grace and finish, and marvellous perfection, do all that he has achieved in his boasted advances in arts, civilization and progress, dwindle away into little less than microscopic insignificance! I have in my mind a passage from Aristotle, which Cicero has preserved,

* The texts upon which our discourse hangs, are chiefly the Baron Humboldt's *Cosmos*, Guyot's *Earth and Man*, Dr. Nott's *Lectures on Man*, etc. A great many *very learned* notes were intended, but the reader has escaped them, by the same providence which prevents our re-writing the manuscript. This is a practical proof of the error of reserving one's learning for his notes.

beautifully showing this contrast of the works of nature and the works of art. The philosopher supposes a nation dwelling in the centre of the earth, shut up by its close walls; but yet, possessed of all the rich abundance in houses, palaces, statuary, paintings, &c., of nation, in the highest possible civilization and luxury. "If such beings," he tells us, "could receive tidings of the power and might of the gods, and could then emerge from their hidden dwellings through the open fissures of the earth to the places which we inhabit—could suddenly behold the earth, and the sea, and the vault of heaven—could recognise the expanse of the cloudy firmament, and the might of the winds of heaven, and admire the sun in its majesty, beauty, and radiant effulgence; and lastly—when night veiled the earth in darkness, could behold the starry heavens, the changing moon, and the stars rising and setting in the unvarying course ordained from eternity, they would surely exclaim—'These are gods, and such great things must be the work of their hands.'"

In the struggle to grasp even a few of the pearly shells on the great and infinite shores of nature, much less to rise to a comprehension of the myriads of perfect forms, which, in a drop of water, or in a universe of worlds, exhibit her inexhaustible wealth and resources, a crushing sense of immensity is upon us—a sense of nothingness and might,—the worm and the God!

It is the same to me, and I cannot distinguish the emotions into greater and less, when I am told by Ehrenberg that 40,000,000,000 of the silicious shells of *Galionellæ* are contained in a cubic inch of the polishing slate of Bilan; or when Herschell declares, that in the clusters of the milky way, there are more than eighteen millions of suns, each the centre of a universe of planets and moons, some of them so distant, that they must have been in existence *two millions of years* before a ray of their light could have reached our earth; or when we are assured by the same great astronomer, that the processes of growing worlds may be traced in the heavens in the contraction and hardening of nebulous matter! "worlds bursting into life," in a poetic figure, "like grass in the night!"

I dare not presume upon a hasty glance at even the prominent divisions which, like great landmarks, lead us onward in our study of Nature in all of her infinite and wondrous developments. The fields of astronomy, of geology, natural history, and botany, chemistry, mineralogy, and paleontology, must each be exhausted before philosophy can realize how meagre, in all their magnificence, after all, are her attainments! The humbler part will be ours, to trace out merely something of the progress of the mind of man, as it has employed itself in all ages in the investigation and discovery of physical laws and phenomena, and by almost imperceptible degrees traced out the earth we inhabit, for this at present is the extent to which our labors can reach its configuration and general physiognomy, its vegetable and animal life, and the races of men who have influenced and controlled its historical developments.

In the ages of antiquity most distinguished for refinement and civilization, the study of physical forms and natural forces yielded always in importance to that of the intellectual, moral and metaphy-

sical nature of man. The Greek, though situated, as it were, in a garden, around which lingered all the most beautiful, captivating and lovely scenery, blended with the softest and most luxuriant climate, seemed incapable of rising higher than a mere intellectual appreciation, in which the heart had little, if anything, to do. Man and his occupations, his passions and his struggles, human and active life, psychological and historical results, were sufficient to absorb every mental energy. Here centered the whole intellectual system. The epic and the lyric exhausted the domains of poetry, in which *man* was introduced as the actor, and nature but in the relative and subordinate, I had almost said degraded, position. The later days of Greece, which witnessed the growth of descriptive and didactic poetry, witnessed at the same time the decline that had already taken place in the national genius, and spirit, and freedom.

The Romans differed little in these respects from their neighbors, whose civilization they absorbed. In their forms of literature, poetry and philosophy, they were but close, and, in many respects, barren imitators. In Virgil, Ovid, Horace and Tibullus, the subordinate part of nature is again made prominently to project, whilst man and society are the fond and cherished idols. Caesar, who was at once a philosopher and a general, in his passage of the Alps saw nothing in its gorgeous scenery to attract him from the composition of a grammatical work, and Silius Italicus describes these very Alps, and the magnificent outlines of Switzerland, as a *barren and hideous wilderness!* "No description," says Humboldt, "has been transmitted to us from antiquity of the eternal snows of the Alps, reddened by the evening glow or the morning dawn, of the beauty of the blue ice of the glaciers, or of the sublimity of Swiss natural scenery, although statesmen and generals, with men of letters in their retinue, continually passed through Helvetia on their way to Gaul. All these travellers think only of complaining of the wretchedness of the roads, and never appeared to have paid any attention to the romantic beauty of the scenery through which they passed.

An exception, however, occurs in the case of Cicero, who seemed never, in all the affairs of state, the triumphs of oratory, and the pursuits of philosophy, to have lost his relish for whatever was lovely and attractive in the natural world. "Nothing," he writes to Atticus, "can be more delightful than this solitude—nothing more charming than this country-seat, the neighboring shore, and the view of the sea. Next to my Atticus, nothing is so dear to me as solitude, in which I hold intercourse with philosophy, though often interrupted by my tears. I struggle as much as I am able against such emotions, but, as yet, I am unequal to the contest."

The introduction of Christianity, in giving higher notions of God, and, as it were, elevating his works, as in some degree the reflection of his excellence and perfection, whilst it diminished the importance of merely *human* action and machinery, was favorable to the progress of natural studies. We find in the earlier fathers a spirit, nowhere to be sought among the philosophers of a previous age, and, chiefly, in Basil the Great, his brother Gregory of Nyssa, and Chrysostom.

Unhappily, however, in subsequent ages, as the Christian system became degraded in its contest with heathen mythologies, the study of nature came again to be regarded as but a cunning expedient of witchcraft and sorcery, to be interdicted to the faithful, "with all sinful books of physics," in the celebrated Councils of Tours and of Paris! Albertus Magus and Roger Bacon were the first to deliver science from this thralldom of monkish bigotry and ignorance.

The Germanic races of the middle ages combined with that haughty spirit of freedom and independence which is exhibited in all the constitutions that have been perfected out of their political systems, a love and enjoyment of nature, developing itself in their inner life and manners and institutions, and in the songs of their *Minnesingers*, which form so interesting a part of the literature of those rude and stormy times.

If, however, from what is distinguished as classical antiquity, and the forms of society which grew out of it, we pass to other still remote nations, who have played no unimportant historical part, these instructive inquiries into their appreciation of the physical and material world may still further be pushed with advantage.

India, as far back as the most fabulous and mythical times, opens her broad gates as the cradle in which the natural sciences were first rocked. It is not difficult to appreciate how it happened, on the theory of Lasseu, that a part of the Arian race, with their high and noble characteristics and elevated mental endowments, emigrated thither from the northwest of Asia, that so genial a climate, so prolific a soil, such rich and spontaneous products and inexhaustible vegetable life, should have induced in the Indians a contemplative tone of mind, reflected in all their literature, and generating, at last, that theological system of the Brahmins, which, as it were, *deifies* the forces of nature. We catch this spirit in the *Vedas*, the most ancient of their poems; in the works of *Kalidasa*, and in the heroic poems of *Ramayana* and *Mahalharata*, made known to us by oriental scholars. On the other hand, the Persians, or West Arians, though of a later origin, exhibit far less of the fervor for natural scenery, there being little in the characteristics of Persia like those of Hindostan, to stimulate the wild outpourings of a spirit.

Passing northwards from the Iranian Plateaux to the Uralian Mountains, we come to the primitive seat of the Finnish race. A collection of the songs of this people, made long subsequent, breathes an animated love of nature, rarely to be met with in any other poetry but that of India. An ancient epos, containing nearly 3,000 verses, treats of a fight between the Fins and the Laps, and the fate of a demi-god named *Vaino*, and gives a deeply-interesting and graphic account of Finnish country life.

With Hebrew poetry we are all familiar. Seizing upon the highest forms of expression, it loses itself in the glorious effort to compass all nature as *the handiwork of God!* Terrestrial and celestial scenery are blended into one view, with religious fervor and oriental luxuriance of figure, as expressive of the greatness and the glory of Jehovah. A single psalm, which should be in the heart of

every one, is said, with a few grand, yet simple touches, to depict the whole *Cosmos*, or universal nature. "Oh ! Lord, my God ! thou art very great—thou art clothed with honor and majesty—who coverest thyself with light as with a garment, who stretchest out the heavens like a curtain—who layeth the beams of his chambers in the waters—who maketh the clouds his chariot—who walketh upon the wings of the wind. Oh ! Lord, how manifold are thy works—in wisdom hast thou made them all—the earth is full of thy riches. The Lord shall rejoice in his works. He looketh upon the earth, and it trembleth—he touches the hills, and they smoke."

The discovery of America introduced to Europe new and stirring scenes, in which all the grandest and most magnificent features of nature were revealed ; in comparison with which, what had been previously familiar, seemed but tame and unimposing. Nothing could surpass the deep and general excitement of all classes in which imagination was aroused, by the narrations of commanders and soldiers, to the daily expectancy of new and still higher revelations. "The tropical world, with all the luxuriance of its vegetation on the plains, with all the gradations of its varied organisms on the declivities of the Cordilleras, and with all the reminiscences of northern climates, associated with the inhabited plateaux of New-Mexico, New-Granada and Quito, were now first revealed to the eyes of Europeans. A passionate love of the study of nature, which originated chiefly in the North, glowed in the breasts of all ; intellectual expansion of views became associated with the enlargement of knowledge, while the poetic and sentimental tone of feeling peculiar to the epoch of which we speak, has, since the close of the last century, been identified with literary compositions, whose forms were unknown to former ages."

Thus have we, though it must be confessed in a very inadequate manner, marked the gradual development in all nations of the love and study of nature from the remotest periods, when myths and allegorical symbols supplied the place of that actual knowledge we have at last attained of the operations of the physical world.

Gentlemen, in the history of the knowledge of our own earth, its continental masses, plains, plateaux and mountains—its great oceans and islands and rivers—its various heterogeneous and scarcely assimilated races and nations, a subject is unfolded to us, upon which it is scarcely possible to exhaust our interest. With your permission, we shall employ the remainder of this address in its examination and development.

The progress of the same spirit of scientific research, generalization and classification, which has forced history to rise higher than a mere barren concatenation of events, has, if I may so express myself, developed a philosophy of geography. No longer satisfied with barren enumerations of physical phenomena, like the catalogue of Homer's ships, it is the part of enlightened geography, or as it should be more properly, geogony, to seize upon the relations of matter in its action upon matter, or upon organized beings and human societies ; descending down, as it were, beneath the crust,

into the very physiology and life of the globe. It is in this field the great Humboldt, after an octogenarian experience, measures again his strength. Here we trace the pathway of Carl Ritter and Steffens, and follow the legitimate development of their labors in the physical atlas of Berghaus and Keith Johnson, or in the lectures of Arnold Guyot, delivered last winter in the University of Cambridge, which I commend to your earnest attention.

I cannot but dwell, for a moment, upon the importance of that portion of physical geography which employs itself in tracing the characteristic differences and various types of the human race, and in which the present age is more actively employed than any previous one has been. The origin of races, the climatic and physical causes operating upon them, the relations in the roots and structure of languages, the modifying and controlling forces of great natural boundaries and divisions,—in fact, everything that is understood by ethnology, is as deserving of the attention of the political economist, statesman, and sound practical philosopher, as the mere man of science. In the application of political theories and systems, the statesman who overlooks great and cardinal distinctions in the races and geographical relations of men, will in vain attempt to work out the problems of their social and political existence. This truth was perceived by Mr. Calhoun, as I think is clearly manifest in that remarkable speech made at nearly the close of his career, which opens with a refutation of the strained dogma attributed to Mr. Jefferson, "that all men are born free and equal," and a profound ignorance of it is at the bottom of all the wild dreams and vagaries of the reformers of the present day. The Prudhons and Fouriers, French Socialists, Continental Republicans, Northern Abolitionists, who, setting out with the perfect *equality* in every respect of all the nations and families of men, proclaim the doctrines of universal republicanism, *universal agrarianism*, and in addition, the fullness of liberty and freedom from all restraint, stand ready to fit, as in the bed of Procrustes, Hottentot and Bushman, semi-civilized Negro and Caucasian, to institutions of a common shape and character!

It is, therefore, that I look to ethnological studies as the sure means of correcting the inveterate and dangerous vagaries of political theorists, and of saving mankind a repetition of the scenes of blood and slaughter, growing out of the physically impossible efforts of conquerors to fuse discordant and irreconcilable races into one common mass. The idle fantasies, too, of a pseudo-philanthropy and *patriotism*, seeking in a lower state of civilization, or in a lower ethnological type to imitate the forms and institutions of a higher and more perfect one, must, I think, at the same time be dissipated or controlled.* It is in this respect I have taken an especial interest in the explorations and discussions of my learned friend Dr. Nott, of Mobile, which have been followed up by Morton and Agassiz, and

* When General Lafayette, at the head of the National Guard, might have declared a republic for France, he did not hesitate to announce, the French people were unprepared for such a government.

replied to by your erudite and estimable citizen, Bachman, a name so proudly recognized in the world of science.

Gentlemen, I had hoped to open before you in this address, many of the striking and beautiful relations and contrasts in the continents, islands, oceans and climates of the earth, as they influence vegetable and animal life, and man and society, the great ends, so far as we can see of all this modification of matter, as physical geography furnishes them; but I perceive already with reluctance, that time will not now admit. I must, however, advert to a few of the most striking of these relations.

Though it be true that a depression of a few hundred feet would make no change on the essential forms of the solid mass of the earth, we are not on that account to underrate the influence even of the shapes and contours of continents on the life and character of man. Were all the peninsulas and islands of Europe, the great historical continent, so added to the common mass, as to give one uniform rounded contour, we should have had, even now, perhaps, the uniformity and barbarism of New Holland. It cannot be unimportant that a country is elevated or spread out upon the level of the sea, when we compare in the same latitude Hindostan, with the glowing life of the tropics, and the deserts of Thibet, the perpetual and deadly fevers of Vera Cruz, and the perpetual springs of the Mexican plains.* "Place the beautiful peninsulas of Europe and India," says Mr. Guyot, "on the north of their continents, Italy and Greece become Scandinavia, and India a Kamtschatka. Placed at the east of Asia, all Europe would be but a frozen peninsula. In the same manner, if the Rocky Mountains bordered the eastern coast of North America, and closed against the nations of the East and of Europe the entrance to the rich valley of the Mississippi; or if this immense chain extended from east to west, across the northern part of the continent, and barred the passage of the polar winds, which now rush unobstructed over these vast plains; or even less, if preserving all the great present features of this continent, we suppose, only, the interior plains were inclined slightly towards the north, and that the Mississippi entered into the Frozen Ocean, who does not see, that in these various cases, the relations of warmth and moisture, the climate, and with it the vegetation and the animal world, would undergo the most important modifications, and that these changes of form and relative position would have an influence greater still upon the destinies of human society, both in the present and in the future."

To follow out these remarkable relations a little further, though their importance at first sight be not so obvious, we observe what was first pointed out by Lord Bacon, that the extremities of the old and the new world both terminate at a point in the south, and go on gradually widening to the northward. Forster, whom Humboldt acknowledges as his first guide in these researches, adds, that the southern points are always rocky, are the extremes of mountain

belts, and have to their eastward a large island, or groups of islands, and that all the continents have a deep bend on their western side, towards the interior of the land. The further singular relation was perceived by Humboldt, that on the two sides of the Atlantic the salient or projecting angles of the one *exactly* correspond to the re-entering angles of the other: Cape St. Rogue to the Gulf of Guinea, Cape Verd to the Gulf of Mexico. The grouping of the continental masses belongs to Steffens, who discovered they were arranged two and two in three double worlds, united by an isthmus or a chain of islands—on the one side of the isthmus exists always an archipelago, on the other a peninsula. These double worlds are the two Americas; Europe, including a part of Western Asia and Arabia, united to Africa by the Isthmus of Suez; Asia—Australia with the continuous chain of islands interposed. Leaving the domain of the solid earth, it was Carl Ritter who, drawing a great circle through the coasts of Peru and Southern Asia, traced the existence of two great hemispheres, the one the continental or *land*, the other the oceanic, or *water* hemisphere.

But further than this, whilst in the new world the continents extend from *north to south*, which gives to America all the zones of the earth, and the greatest diversity of climatic relations, in the old world the line of their projection is from *east to west*. A more important contrast between the different continents, consists in their different indentations or length of sea-coasts: since these, in promoting foreign intercourse, are at the bottom of most of the civilization of the world. We have Africa presenting a uniform, monotonous and unbroken front to the sea, and assuming the character in fact, as in history, of a closed continent. We have Asia numerously indented and articulated with peninsulas and bays; but still far behind Europe, which is almost entirely composed of these irregularities of feature, opening her interior at every point to the sea, and giving to her 3,000 miles more of sea-coast than Africa, which has three times her dimensions. In the new world, North America, in line of coasts, has greatly the advantage of South America, and is, indeed, more highly favored in this regard than any other part of the world, except Europe.

Time will not permit us to trace the great common law of slopes and counter-slopes, and reliefs of continents, the most remarkable of which are the gentle and lengthened slopes of the great mountain chains towards the Atlantic and the Frozen Oceans, and the steep and abrupt slopes towards the Pacific. Nor can we advert to the contrasts of mountains, plateaux and plains, the former giving character to the old world, and the latter to the new.

Nor are the configurations of the oceans less singular and interesting than those of the lands. The Pacific, the Atlantic, and the Indian oceans correspond to the double worlds of Steffens. In their contours they have a common opening towards the south, and are narrowed towards the north—the reverse of the continents. The Pacific is an oval, the Indian ocean a triangle, with its vortex to the south, the Atlantic a valley with parallel sides, widening into the Frozen Ocean.

The first is characterized by its "closed seas," the second by its "gulfs," the third by its "inland seas," making it, in the figure of Mr. Guyot, the most *maritime* of oceans, as the Pacific is the most *oceanic*. But we must not stop at the mere surface of these great waters. What an unexplored field is still spread out beneath, in which imagination and conjecture are left to exhaust themselves! Where do these depths terminate, or are they, in accordance with popular notions, interminable? The line and the thermometer have failed to solve the enigma. Captain Scoresby sounded 7,200 feet in the Polar seas in vain; Captain Ross 6,000 feet in Baffin's Bay; Captain Davis 7,800 feet south of Nantucket; and those three gallant American officers, the two Baches and Walsh, have reached respectively the prodigious and altogether unexampled measurements of 13,000 feet, 19,800 feet, and 34,200 feet, without succeeding in either case in finding a resting place for the lead. It would be necessary, says Guyot, to add Mount Washington to the Dhalva Giri, to attain a height equal to this great sounding of Walsh—and if we add the greatest sea depth known to the highest mountains, there is a thickness of 62,000 feet, or about eleven miles, which must be given to the outer layer of our globe.

And, finally, if we compare the old and the new world together, giving a close attention to the physiology of their structure, we shall be able to trace many of the causes at work in determining the diversities of vegetable and animal nature and man. The old and the new world differ in the number, extent, and groupings of their Continents, in their situation with respect to climatic zones, in the general direction of their lands, and in their internal structure.* The new world, from its greater abundance of waters, and its consequent great *humidity* of atmosphere, stimulates into a riotous luxuriance all the forms of vegetable life, and those insect and reptile organisms most intimately dependent upon them. In the higher animal life, and in man, the dry or continental climate of the old world develops a much higher perfection. Thus, in the same scientific order the elephant, rhinoceros and hippopotamus, of the old world, have their counterparts in the insignificant and feeble tapir and pecari of the new. For the camel and the dromedary, there answers the lama of the Andes, of but half the size; for the kingly lion and the fierce tiger, the ounce and the jaguars of Brazil, but a description of larger cats! The same *inferiority* in the higher animal life is everywhere manifested in the new world, and in the highest degree in man. Whilst America, from Labrador to Cape Horn, can boast of but a single copper-colored race, the old world embraces four or five distinct races, or families of men. Here emanate the White or Caucasian, the great historical and progressive family, which has attained nearly all that modern civilization claims. Here exist the Mongolian and Malayan, still superior to the copper-colored. "If we take," according to Guyot, "even those races of the temperate regions of the old world, at the lowest degree of the social state, the

* Guyot.

nomadic tribes of the plateaux of Eastern Asia, and of the Western steppes, they are still far superior to the hunting tribes of the two Americas. There is even in the tropical man of the old world, in Africa at least, a somewhat of native vigor, of *vital energy*, manifested by his sanguine temperament, by his gayety, by his lively affections, and by his *muscular strength*, placing him higher than the Indians of tropical America.

In this striking relation of the two worlds, how much may we not mark which seems to indicate a great *final cause*. In the one a dense vegetable life, exuberance of soil, luxurious, spontaneous production, combined with scanty population, are opened to the eager interests and desires of the other, where nature, in some respects, is more of a sluggard, and develops, in its highest perfection, nothing so much as *man* ;—man, who, from the remotest times, has gone on multiplying in her midst in a ratio which has peopled with dense numbers every plain and valley. Thus the new world welcomes to her bosom the crowded emigration of the old, and, for three hundred years, the stream has been continually setting in the one inviting quarter.

Gentlemen, after these hurried reflections, which give but a meagre insight into the nature of the studies of the earth and man, which are now being everywhere prosecuted with so much active research, let us take a rapid survey of the progress, from the most humble and obscure beginnings, of the knowledge and extent of the earth's surface, and of the various phenomena and features which characterize it.

I have in my hand the copy of a map, drawn and colored by my friend, Dr. Nott, of Mobile, which I regret is not large enough to be perceived by you at this distance, but which indicates the world, as it was *known* and *unknown* to the ancients, in the most advanced period of their history. What a blank does this map present of about *nine-tenths* of the earth's surface ! Beyond the south of Europe, the west of Asia, Palestine and Arabia, with a narrow slip on the north of Africa, everything is *terra incognita*, as much so almost as the surface of the moon. Not that explorations may not, at distant periods, have been made within some of these limits, but that nothing had been preserved of them but the most vague, and often preposterous, traditions. The great geographer, Strabo, who was a contemporary of Christ, knew nothing of the north of Asia, of the Chinese Empire, or of India, except through confused Greek traditions. The interior of Africa was to him desert and uninhabitable, and the equator an altogether unapproachable limit. The Nile, according to Virgil, flowed from India and Britain—in the view of the profound Tacitus, was bounded on the *west* by Spain !

Taking the Mediterranean as the starting point in the knowledge of cosmogony, we find that, in the time of Homer, Italy was an unknown land, and remained so until the Phoenicians, according to Humboldt, opened the Tyrrhenian basin west of Sicily, and Tartessian mariners reached the Pillars of Hercules. Egyptian civilization, which runs back to the dynasty of Manetho, thirty-four centu-

ries before Christ, displayed itself in a growing disposition to undertake remote expeditions, and colonize distant lands. Rameses Miamoun, 1300 years B. C., penetrated, according to Herodotus, into Ethiopia, where Lepsius thinks his most southern architectural works were found; and crossed from Asia Minor into Europe. This Rameses, or Sesostris, is said to have reached India beyond the Ganges, bringing back captives from Babylon, and to have first attempted a canal through the Isthmus of Suez.

The Phœnicians made still further advances in geogony, in planting their colonies along the Euxine, on the Bithynian shore, on the islands of the *Ægean*, on the south of Spain, on the north of Africa, or in commercial expeditions to the tin and amber lands of the north of Europe, to the Persian Gulf, etc. They visited a large part of the northwest coast of Africa, and it is even conjectured, reached some part of the American coast or neighboring islands, 2,500 years before Columbus, and 2,000 before Eric Randau's celebrated voyage to Greenland! The Tyrian flag floated simultaneously in the British and Indian seas—and under it was conducted a caravan trade in spices and incense with Arabia Felix, through Palmyra, and to the Chaldean or Nebathadic Gerrha, on the Western or Arabian side of the Persian Gulf.

The Greeks, who come next in the order of time, were influenced, as Humboldt tells us, by three causes, in extending their knowledge of the earth—the attempts to penetrate beyond the Mediterranean to the east, similar attempts towards the west, and the establishment of influential colonies from the Pillars of Hercules to the Euxine. The advance towards the east is known in history as the *Argonautic Expedition* to Colchis, 1,200 years B. C., and although the accounts of this adventure are, for the most part, mythical and fabulous, there are strong reasons to think it but an early attempt to open the inhospitable Euxine to the commerce of Western Europe. Though the Phœnicians had long before passed beyond the Gaderian Gate, or Pillars of Hercules, it was Coleus of Samos, who, being driven out of the Mediterranean by storms, was the first to make known to the admiring Greeks the existence of the great and boundless ocean. Ever striving to pass beyond this common barrier, Phœnicians, Greeks, Arabs, Catalans, Venetians, Portuguese, Spaniards, &c., essayed the passage of the Atlantic, believed by them to be "a miry and shallow deep," and proceeding from station to station, now the Canaries, then the Azores, finally reached, after some 2,500 years, the body of the Western Continent, to find themselves anticipated 500 years by the Northmen, who had proceeded on a route altogether different.

The wars of Alexander the Great, or the Macedonian campaigns, which, from the number of learned naturalists, artists and philosophers who accompanied them, partake almost of the nature of scientific expeditions, extended very greatly the area of geographical knowledge, and of the progressive history of mankind. The aim of the conqueror was to "amalgamate the nations into a unity, under Hellenistic influences." Diversities the most remote, of countries,

climates, and races, were made known in his progress, and an intimate knowledge derived of those Eastern products of which commercial intercourse had, as yet, furnished little, and which, at this day, occupy so important a place in the exchanges of civilized nations; to wit, rice, cotton, spices, and opium—wines from the juice of palms, sugar from the sugar cane, wool from the bombax tree, Thibetian goats' hair shawls, ottar of roses, and other perfumes, etc. The splendid scenery of the East, too, and its luxuriant and rank vegetation, excited the highest admiration of Greek writers, who described, in almost oriental poetry, "the bamboo, each of whose joints might serve for a many-oared keel," and the "Indian fig-tree, taking root by its branches, and furnishing a leafy canopy like a tent, supported by pillars." The campaigns of Alexander gave rise, also, to comparisons and contrasts of the African races of Egypt, the Arians beyond the Tigris, and the ancient Indian aborigines, of dark color, but not woolly-haired, etc.

After the fall of the Macedonian Empire, it devolved upon the Ptolemies of Egypt to enlarge the field of cosmogony, which had been handed over to them. The three first of the name, whose reigns occupied a century, guided by a passion for science, established institutions of learning, and strenuously urged the extension of foreign trade. The result of their encouragement was, that, even before Carthage was overshadowed by the Roman power, Alexandria had risen to the rank of the greatest commercial mart on earth, and had discovered by far the best route from the Mediterranean to the southeastern coasts of Africa, Arabia and India. This route was admirably seized upon, and adopted by the Ptolemies, as that which had been marked out by the hand of Nature herself. Even after the reduction of Egypt, Alexandria continued to occupy an important place in the geography and history of the Roman Empire.

The important extension of the sphere of knowledge pertaining to external nature, and to the different countries of the world, under the Ptolemies, was mainly owing, says Humboldt, to the caravan trade in the interior of Africa, by Cyrene and the Oases; to the conquests in Ethiopia and Arabia Felix, under Ptolemy Euregetes; to the maritime trade with the whole of the western peninsula of India, from the Gulf of Barygazza, along the shores of Canara and Malabar, to the Brahminical Sanctuaries of the Promontory of Comorin; and to the large island of Ceylon. Nearchus had already materially contributed to the advance of nautical knowledge, by his laborious five months' voyage along the coasts of Gedrosia and Carmania, between Pattala, at the mouths of the Indus and the Euphrates.

Claudius, who belongs to the age of Theodosius the Great, when Roman literature and civilization was in its decline, leaves us a beautiful panegyric upon the extent of the Roman power:

Haec est in gremium victos quæ sola recepit
Humanumque genus communi nomine fovit
Matris, non dominæ, ritu; cives que vocavit

Quos domuit, nexuque pro longinqua revénxit.
 Hujus pacificis debemus moribus omnes
 Quod veluti patriis regionibus utilar hospes.

This empire, which, according to Gibbon, embraced 1,600,000 square miles, and stretched 3,000 miles from the Atlantic to the Euphrates, and 2,000 miles from the northern borders of Dacia to the tropic of Cancer, though less than the Chinese Empire under the dynasty of Tsin, and the Eastern Han, less than the Mongolian Empire under Ghengis Khan, or even the present Russian Empire, included a greater number of fruitful, wealthy, and favorably-situated countries, than any other ancient or modern government, excepting the Spanish monarchy in its palmiest colonial days.* Expeditions were sent out to the remote north, and to the amber lands, to Arabia, and the territory of Garamantes. Greek geometers were employed by Augustus to make admeasurements of the empire, and in order to ensure entire accuracy, the co-operation of all the governors of provinces was required. Roman roads branched in every direction of the compass, and the Emperor Adrian is said to have undertaken an extensive journey, to examine personally the condition of all the provinces, which undertaking required about eleven years. Fused with the Greek, the Latin tongue became, very naturally, one of the most powerful means for the amalgamation and union of nations; for harmonizing men, according to Pliny, and in giving them one common country. In the reign of the Emperor Claudius the embassy of Rachias of Ceylon came to Rome by way of Egypt; and under Marcus Aurelius Roman legates visited the Chinese court, having come by sea by the route of Tunkin.*

After the fall of Rome, the Arabians seemed alone to preserve and perpetuate a knowledge of the physical sciences, and more than any other people, interested themselves in their advancement. Emerging from the interior of the Arabian peninsula, after a life of exclusion for thousands of years, this remarkable people came for the first time into contact with nations of a more advanced grade, and by a sudden and unprecedented movement, subjugated everything before them, from the pillars of Hercules and the Indus to the Hindoo-Coosh; maintaining relations of commerce, in the ninth century, with the north of Europe, Madagascar, Eastern Africa, India and China. Their migratory hordes were compared to groups of clouds, which the winds will soon break up and scatter. After the Asiatic conquest, the Arabs spread in seventy years over Egypt, Cyrene and Carthage, through the whole of northern Asia to the far remote western peninsula of Iberia.

In the centuries which are known as those of maritime discovery, and which witnessed in rapid succession the most brilliant acquisitions of empires beyond the seas, we find Europe electrified with a new life. As early as 1525, when the astronomical and geographical congress was held for the purpose of settling the conflicting claims of

* Humboldt.

Portugal and Spain, the outlines of the new world were clearly traced from Terra del Fuego to the coast of Labrador. On the western coast, Cabrello had penetrated to Monterey, in 1543, and Ferreto conducted the same expedition to Cape Oxford, in the 43d degree of latitude.

The western world had not, however, been a sealed volume to Europe until the time of Columbus, as was for a long time supposed. From the minute and detailed particulars of the voyages and discoveries made by the Northmen, collected and published a few years ago by the Royal Society of Antiquities at Copenhagen, we are enabled to trace the progress of discovery to periods far more remote. Leif, the son of Eric the Red, was among the first of these Northmen who discovered the continent of the new world, having reached it in the latitude of Boston, afterwards in Nova Scotia and Newfoundland, about the year 1000. He was preceded fourteen years before by Herjufsson, who had perceived the coast, but without effecting a landing. Earlier by more than a century than this, the Norwegians were driven to Iceland in their course to the Faroe Islands, which the Irish had discovered. The first *settlement* was made about the year 875, and the colonization of Iceland extended through Greenland to the new continent.

The discovery of the main land therefore by Leif, was 125 years later than the settlement of Iceland, and the first American colonies which were planted by him, were upon that part of our coast which lies between New-York and Boston, and embraces parts of Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut, and was known as *Vinland*. The colonists contended unceasingly with a warlike race of the Esquimaux, and in 1121, the Bishop of Greenland undertook a religious mission for their conversion. Boundary pillars were erected on the eastern shores of Baffin's Bay, whose Punie inscriptions bear the date of 1135. From this point, 600 years before the discoveries of Parry and Ross, they visited Barrow's Straits, in the prosecution of their fisheries, and, in 1347, a ship was sent from Greenland to Nova Scotia, to collect building timber.

Thus far have we not wandered beyond the domain of *authentic* history, though many interesting traditions carry us back to times even far more remote. The Northmen heard in Vinland of races south of the Chesapeake, who were *white*, wore white garments, and walked in processions, and the Icelandic chronicles especially speak of the coasts between Virginia and Florida as the *land of the white men*. Who were these white races? The conjecture that they were of Irish origin has received much countenance since the time of Raleigh, and it is even pretended that some of the aborigines exhibited strong traces of a *Celtic* original—that the *native* Virginians spoke pure Celtic, that the Gaelic salutation has been heard amongst them—and that Owen Chapelane, in 1669, saved himself from the hands of the Tuscaroras, who were about to scalp him, by addressing them in the Gaelic dialect. If this *Irish* theory be received, it would seem that the nation, baffled at first in the possession of the continent,

are determined to take it at last by the interminable flood of emigration they are continually urging to its shores.

It must be considered remarkable, that discoveries so great as those of the Northmen in the new world, should never have been heard of in the south of Europe, as late as the time of Columbus; and it is very difficult to resist the impression, that that great captain, who acknowledges himself he visited Iceland in 1477, collected there many of the traditions which put him upon the path of eventual discovery. The southwest course which his vessels took from the Canaries, evinces, that at best his information must have been very vague and confused, if obtained in this quarter.

Europe, for some time previous to the movements of Columbus, had been undergoing a rapid progression, in the various explorations by sea, the discovery of the magnet, gunpowder, the printing press, etc., etc., and was beginning to develop in the highest activity all the elements of intellectual life. Everything had prepared the way for the discovery of the continent, "the rapid determination of its configuration, the passage around the southern point of Africa to India, and finally, the circumnavigation of the globe, events that, in thirty years, so indefinitely extended a knowledge of the regions of the earth."

I cannot, gentlemen, conclude this discourse so satisfactorily as in the language of the great Humboldt: "Where, in the history of nations, can we find an epoch similar to that in which events so fraught with important results as the discovery and first colonization of America, the passage to the East Indies around the Cape of Good Hope, and Magellan's first circumnavigation, occurring simultaneously with the highest perfection of art, with the attainment of intellectual and religious freedom, and with the sudden enlargement of the earth and the heavens."

"We would simply draw attention to the fact, that since this period a new and more vigorous activity of the mind and feelings, animated by bold aspirations and hopes, which can scarcely be frustrated, has gradually penetrated through all grades of civil society—that the scanty population of one-half of the globe, especially in the portions opposite to Europe, has favored the settlement of colonies, which have been converted by their extent and position into independent states, enjoying unlimited power in the choice of their mode of free government; and finally—that religious reform, the precursor of great political revolutions, could not fail to pass through the different phases of its development, in a portion of the earth which had become the asylum of all forms of faith, and of the most different views regarding divine things. The daring enterprise of the Genoese seamen, is the first link in the immeasurable chain of these great events. The new world, continuously brought nearer to Europe during the last half century, by means of commercial intercourse, has exercised an important influence on the political institutions, the ideas and feelings of those nations who occupy the eastern shores of the Atlantic, the boundaries of which appear to be constantly brought nearer to one another."

GENTLEMEN OF THE CHILOPHIC SOCIETY :

The paper which I have had the honor of reading before you, is at best but a crude and ill-digested collection of facts, by no means deserving of the kind attention you have vouchsafed to it, and falling very far short of what, in my own opinion, the subject and the occasion required. Circumstances I cannot now explain, reduced the time of preparation down to a very few days, notwithstanding the ample notice from you, and my own urgent desire to elaborate something which should be worthy of your approbation. It is too late now to do more than to crave your indulgence, and to express the hope, that although little originality characterizes the effort, and nothing has been added by it to the sum of our knowledge, it will not be altogether without influence in drawing your closer attention to what I must regard a most inviting, and, as yet, for a large part, unexplored field of research and study.

I thank you for the honor of this appointment. You have surrounded me here with associations, and recalled memories I would not exchange for a diadem. This venerable building, the shady campus without*—these halls, this very stand I occupy, the occasional faces I recognize in the audience,—your society, (whose badges I was so proud to wear,) and a part of which I cannot but feel myself now,—everything wears the aspect of an old and cherished friendship, a something I have seen a thousand times in dreams, and never recalled in waking hours but with mingled emotions of pain and pleasure. Yes, gentlemen, this is consecrated, classical ground to me, and I tread it with high and holy feelings, and softly, lest I should invade upon some sacred repose of past joys, and earnest, hopeful, youthful affections. How often, in the disturbed scenes of active life, has my fancy fondly reverted hither, as to a place of flowers in perennial bloom, an oasis the more attractive as the deserts grew and deepened around !

Ten years ago, for it is nearly that, though it seems but yesterday, I occupied this stand as now, but with how different feelings!—with what a different world before me from what has been actually realized!—with what aims and prospects, that, like shadows, have been pursued only to flit the further away!—Yes, ten years is a woful corrective of the vagaries of boyish enthusiasm, and in its flight has often recalled to my memory what was a favorite expression of my lamented early friend, guide, and preceptor, the late President Brantly, of this College, whose memory I fondly cherish—“*anticipation* is ever running before, to muddy the stream in which *reality* will drink.”

But the cycle of life must be fulfilled ; and what, after all, are ten years when we have passed them, but a speck on the vision, whilst we marvel that so little remains of the thoughts, the feelings and actions, the joys and the sorrows, and the clustering events, whose number must have been myriads, to have filled up such a space ; yet only here

* Alas ! no longer “shady,”—the ruthless hand of *improvement* has destroyed those fair trees.

and there, like islands on the pathless ocean, we may trace the outlines of a few scattering ones, seen lingering still distant and obscure !

Yet, let me not discourage you, gentlemen, by one darkened picture of life. Youth is the season of flowers, and in its freshness and hopefulness, carries with it a charm and an inspiration. It is a season when images are graven strongest and deepest upon the heart, and when impressions are *indelibly* fixed. I would not break its mystic charm. Happy are you in all of its enjoyments. Happy in these classic shades, where the genial influences of philosophy and science may be shared in all their elevating and ennobling results, and where you may drink from every classic fountain, and, abstracted from the cares of the world, shape and fashion your character upon the best models that history can afford. I believe you will not be unmindful of these advantages ; but, judging the future by the past, am rather assured you will emerge from these retreats with intelligences highly refined and cultivated, and with such stores of knowledge and well-established principles at command, as will enable you to perform faithfully the duties of life, which may be incumbent upon you in any and every sphere of action. Remember, that knowledge is not *alone* to be measured by its *practical* fruits, however considerable these may be, but that she has high and noble rewards for her votaries, though the successes of this world are all denied them. *Science and Philosophy must be cultivated for themselves !* " You are *unworthy* of the honors of the Academy," said the great D'Alembert to a student who confessed he had prepared and elaborated a learned thesis, simply for the attainment of those honors. The cry of the silversmiths who earned their bread in fabricating the shrines of the temple, " Long live Diana of Ephesus," which ascended even higher than the voice of the votaries of the goddess, furnishes no inapt parallel of the veneration which the modern utilitarians profess to have for knowledge ! I would counsel you against their degrading example.

In bidding you adieu, gentlemen, and departing again from my native state for the distant home, and the warm and generous friends I have found at the mouth of the great father of waters, I cannot but feel many, and deep, and poignant regrets. Who that has been reared in this gallant, noble state, has ever been anxious to renounce his inheritance, or to exchange it for a mess of pottage ? I thank God the state has taught her children in a different and a better school, and that when she sends them abroad to enter into the service, or to claim the citizenship of other communities, they go with the lesson upon their hearts, that an ardent and undying affection for *her* can never, in virtuous estimation, be inconsistent with the *new allegiance* they acquire ; but that, on the contrary, the absence of such affection constitutes a species of *moral treason*, alike at war with the laws of nature and of God !

To me it is the proudest heritage I can claim, that my first breath was drawn in such a state—a state which has ever been distinguished for the incorruptible virtue, patriotism, and intelligence of her people, and never yet has had upon her escutcheon one stain in the lengthened period of her history :—a generous and noble state, God

bless her!—which knows no compromises with dishonor, and treasures her children to her heart as her most precious jewels, whether, like Butler, or even the meanest private of her regiment, they fell covered with honor on the fields of Mexico, or, like Calhoun, full of years and illustrious achievements, they have gone out in death on a sea of glory. Such a state may be poor in cotton bales, but, thank God! she is still rich in spirit, and erect in the consciousness of an untarnished reputation. The eyes of the world are upon her now: may she neither falter in the path of *duty*, nor yet, in the enthusiasm of her noble impulses, seem to incur the charge of rashness and impetuosity; but whatever her course or her destiny, whether in sunshine or in storm, the heart of every true Carolinian, as of every true born MAN, whoever or wherever he may be, will beat responsive and in unison with her own!

“ Land of my sires! what mortal hand
 Can e'er untie the filial band,
 That knits me to thy rugged strand!
 * * * * *
 And thus I love *thee* better still,
Even in extremity of ill! ”

ART. VII.—TURKEY AND ITS DESTINY.*

HISTORY, COMMERCE, RESOURCES, ARTS, PROSPECTS OF TURKEY, ETC.

THE recent insurrectionary attempts on the part of the inhabitants of Aleppo, to sever the province of Syria from the authority of the Sultan, as well as the importance of promoting our commercial interests in Turkey, have been deemed sufficient reasons for inducing us to write the present article. It may not be improper, by way of introduction, to give a brief sketch of the rise and progress of the Ottoman Empire, and the causes which led to its decline. The conquest of Prusa, A. D. 1299, by Othman, the son of a Turcoman chieftain, in the service of Aladdin, the Sultan of Iconium, is the true date of its foundation. After reigning for twenty-seven years, the reins of government fell into the hands of his son, Oream, who redeemed the lives and property of the Christian subjects by a ransom of 30,000 crowns, and converted the city into a Mohammedan capital. He soon after took the city of Nice, and sold the sacrilegious plunder at Constantinople. After conquering the Emperor Andronicus, he subdued the whole province or kingdom as far as the shores of the Bosphorus and the Hellespont. He married the Christian Princess, Theodora, and alternately the ally of the Latins and the Greeks, he steadily pursued his own aggrandizement. He was succeeded by his son Murad or Amurath, who subdued the whole of Thrace, from the Hellespont to Mount

* Turkey and its Destiny; the Result of Journeys made in 1847 and 1848, in that country, by Charles Macfarlane. J. Lawrence Smith, M. D., Report on Emery in Turkey, etc.

Haemus. He perished by the hand of a foreign assassin, and the renowned Bajazet, surnamed the "Thunderbolt," reigned in his stead. His reign is considered one of the most splendid epochs in the Turkish annals. He pursued his conquests in every direction. Not content with their equivocal submission, he resolved to annex by force their territories to his empire. After stripping his brother Emirs of their hereditary possessions, he extended his invasions into Asia Minor on the east, and crossing the Danube on the west, he imposed a regular form of servitude on the Servians and Bulgarians, and sought new subjects and new enemies in the heart of Moldavia. In the great battle of Nicopolis, he defeated a confederate army of a hundred thousand Christians, from the west of Europe, who had proudly boasted that if the sky should fall, they could uphold it on their lances. His career of conquest was checked by Tamerlane, the Mogul Emperor, who, discovering his inordinate ambition, and that he was meditating the conquest of Syria and Egypt, sought an occasion of quarrel, which soon resulted in a desperate battle, in which Bajazet was completely defeated. He was succeeded by Mohammed I., who died in 1421, and bequeathed an undivided empire to his successor, Murad or Amurath II. In his turn he was succeeded by the Conqueror of Constantinople, the accomplished and execrable Mohammed II. We cannot forego the pleasure of quoting the graphic description which Gibbon gives of this memorable siege :

"On the 6th of April, 1453, the imperial standard of the besiegers was flouted before the gate of St. Romanus, and, after a siege of fifty-four days, that Constantinople, which had defied the power of Chosroes the Chagan, and the khalifs, was irretrievably subdued by the arms of Mohammed II. Her empire only had been subverted by the Latins ; her religion was trampled in the dust by her Moslem conquerors. From the first hour of the memorable 29th of May, disorder and rapine prevailed in Constantinople, till the eighth hour of the same day, when the Sultan himself pressed through the gate of St. Romanus. He was attended by the viziers, bashaws, and guards, each of whom (says a Byzantine historian) was robust as Hercules, dexterous as Apollo, and equal in battle to any ten of the race of ordinary mortals. The conqueror gazed with satisfaction and wonder on the strange, though splendid appearance, of the domes and palaces, so dissimilar from the style of oriental architecture. In the hippodrome or *atmeidan*, his eye was attracted by the twisted column of the three serpents, and, as a trial of his strength, he shattered with his iron mace or battle-axe the under-jaw of one of those monsters, which, in the eyes of Turks, were the idols or talismans of the city. At the principal door of St. Sophia, he alighted from his horse, and entered the dome ; and such was his jealous regard for the monument of his glory, that on observing a zealous Mussulman in the act of breaking the marble pavement, he admonished him with his cimeter, that if the spoil and captives were granted to the soldiers, the public and private buildings had been reserved for the prince. By his command, the metropolis of the Eastern Church was transformed into a mosque ; the rich and portable instruments

of superstition had been removed, the crosses were thrown down, and the walls, which were covered with images and rosaries, were washed and purified, and restored to a state of naked simplicity. On the same day, or on the ensuing Friday, the *muezzin* or crier ascended the most lofty turret, and proclaimed the *izan*, or public invitation, in the name of God and his prophet; the *iman* preached, and Mahomet II. performed the *namaz* of prayer and thanksgiving on the great altar where the Christian mysteries had so lately been celebrated before the last of the Cæsars. From St. Sophia, he proceeded to the august, but desolate mansion, of a hundred successors of the great Constantine, but which in a few hours had been stripped of the pomp of royalty. A melancholy reflection on the vicissitudes of human greatness forced itself on his mind, and he repeated an elegant distich of Persian poetry: 'The spider has woven his web in the imperial palace; and the owl hath sung her watch-song on the towers of Afrasiab.' Yet his mind was not satisfied, nor did the victory seem complete, till he was informed of the fate of Constantine, whether he had escaped or been made a prisoner, or had fallen in battle. Two Janizaries claimed the honor and reward of his death. The body, under a heap of slain, was discovered by the golden eagles embroidered on his shoes. The Greeks acknowledged, with tears, the head of their late emperor; and, after exposing the bloody trophy, Mahomet bestowed on his rival the honors of a decent funeral."

We might trace the long line of Sultans, who waded their way through slaughter to the supreme authority; but the details would be uninteresting, and our space is limited. Those who believe, with the Bible, that the human heart is deceitful above all things, and desperately wicked, and with Hobbes, that war is the natural condition of man, will find abundant evidences of it, if they will read the black and bloody annals of Turkish history. With a very few exceptions, every new Sultan was compelled to establish his empire by strangling one, and sometimes all the members of his family, and by such other acts of perfidy and crime as jealousy and ambition, and all the base qualities of our nature, are always ready to suggest, in the attainment of illegitimate objects.

One of the main causes of the rise and progress of the Ottoman Empire, is to be attributed to the fallen and degraded condition of the Eastern dynasties, the quarrels and divisions between the Latins and the Greeks, and her vast superiority over her Christian neighbours. The doctrine of fatality, which is the basis of their religion, seems to have inspired the Turks with supernatural zeal, and their military skill and prowess were an overmatch for those who fought under the banner of the Cross. The ancient modes of warfare, by legion and phalanx, which were adopted with great effect by the Greeks, were abandoned for the more wild and desultory system, congenial to a ferocious and barbarous people. The ability and accomplishments of many of their Sultans, must also be considered among the chief causes which raised the Ottoman Empire to such distinction. In point of learning and the cultivation of letters they

were in advance of the Goths, who were deprived of those advantages by the circumscribed limits in which literature was confined within the precincts of monasteries. Colleges and libraries were attached to their mosques, and the works of the Greek philosophers were translated into their language. In agriculture, navigation, and the mechanic arts, they derived considerable knowledge from their intercourse with their Christian neighbors, against whom they used their information by menacing their capital with destruction.

The causes which led to the decline of the Ottoman Empire are manifold ; but we have only time and space enough to glance at a few of them. Unquestionably, the root of the evil lies in their despotic form of government, which imposes a check upon the free and generous exercise of those faculties which alone can make a people truly great. They do not claim, like the older monarchies of Europe, to have received their authority from Heaven ; but, by what they conceive to be a much better title, *by the divine right of physical force*. What is obtained by force, must be maintained by force. While we see that in all the European States, where the leaven of republicanism has been infused, and the people (though not yet permitted to choose their own rulers) are rapidly advancing in every species of improvement, Turkey and Italy are sinking into insignificance and contempt. Wherever the soul is fettered by superstition, and priests are permitted to regulate the consciences of men, pride, bigotry and misery, are sure to follow in the train. Those stinking weeds, which spring up spontaneously in the heart of fallen man, can only be eradicated by allowing the soul to have free intercourse with its Maker, its Purifier and Redeemer.*

In a commercial point of view, the principal cause of Turkish decline is attributed to the discovery of navigation to India by the Cape of Good Hope, in the early part of the seventeenth century. For a long time previous to this, free intercourse between Venice and the Syrian and Egyptian ports, had been fostered by the Sultan, to the aggrandizement of his empire. But the trade which had been carried on between India and China and the Porte, by the way of the Persian Gulf and the Red Sea, was converted into the new chan-

* Perhaps our notions on government may seem heretical. We must candidly avow that we do not believe in the divine right of kings, and have no great confidence in the effect of *moral suasion*—but we have great faith in the *great doctrine of necessity*, and the *divine* (or it may be *infernal*) *right of physical force*. The principles of love and fear are brought to bear upon all human societies and individuals, as bonds to hold them together. But what could love avail without the terrors of punishment ! This holds good between all forms of government, whether despotic or republican. "Power," as it has been wisely said, "is always stealing from the many to the few ;" and whether it be in the hands of one individual, as in the case of a *despot*, or in that of a cabinet, with its creatures and minions, matters not. The limits of power should always be strictly defined, and when these limits are encroached upon, it is the right and duty of the party governed to see that its own rights are maintained ; and of these rights it is the best judge. Who ever heard of the wolf's letting go his hold on the lamb because of its bleating ! Such is the nature of despotism, under whatever forms and disguises it may appear, that it is in vain to expect a *sense of returning justice* to induce it to relax its grasp.

nel of conveyance, to the great detriment of the national strength of Turkey, and the diminishing of her importance in the political system of Europe. Internal dissensions, also, tended to impede the transportation of commodities, which, together with the bad condition of their public roads, inflicted a heavy blow upon their agricultural and manufacturing interests. The natural and necessary consequence of these calamities was an impoverishment of the treasury and a reduction of the military resources, upon which the empire depended for the maintenance of its dignity and independence, and even of its support. Travellers, who have visited the Ottoman dominions in Asia Minor, say that the desolation is almost appalling. Instead of splendid palaces and glittering temples, nothing but ruins and cemeteries are now to be seen. Those stupendous canals and reservoirs, which fertilized the soil of Palestine and the surrounding country, are now in a state of wretched decay. The inhabitants of many of their villages have been compelled to fly their country to avoid the incursions of robbers and the terrors of starvation. Many of their most magnificent cities are fast hastening to the condition of those doomed cities of old, Babylon, Nineveh, Tyre and Sidon, and, as if Providence had determined to destroy them, root and branch, and to leave no vestige of their existence, that most terrible calamity, the earthquake, is swallowing up all that was once the pride and admiration of the world.

"Westward the star of empire takes its way."

Ichabod—thy glory hath for ever departed, is written on the crumbling ruins of the east; and it may be safely predicted that the time is not far distant when the very "owls and bats" will be compelled to seek other places of refuge.

DR. SMITH* was sent to Turkey by the United States government, in 1846, at the request of the Sultan, for the purpose of examining into the adaptedness of the different parts of the Turkish empire to the improved culture of cotton adopted in the United States. The appointment was made, because it was known that he had devoted some attention to the circumstances of climate, soil, temperature and meteorological peculiarities that affect the growth of cotton. Another individual (Dr. Davis) was sent with Dr. Smith, for the purpose of carrying out the agricultural details; but as we know little of the character or result of his labors, which lasted for about a year and a-half, we must be excused for saying nothing more with regard to them. On his arrival in Turkey, Dr. Smith's attention was taken entirely from cotton, and devoted to the development of the mineral resources of such parts of Turkey as are easily accessible to

* Dr. Smith is a native of Charleston, South Carolina, but is now a citizen of New Orleans, and a Professor of Chemistry in the University of Louisiana. After his contract with the Sultan had expired, he returned to his native country. The Sultan conferred on him the order of *Nichan-Iftihar*, in testimony of the distinguished services which he had rendered in developing the geological resources of Turkey. The French Academy of Sciences made a favorable report on his "Memoir on Emery," and ordered it to be published in the "*Receuil des Mémoires des Savans étrangers*."

the capital, and consequently his explorations were principally in the western part of Asia Minor. His discoveries, during a residence of little more than three years, were of considerable importance to the Turkish government, and his development of the emery formation of Asia Minor of great general value to the manufacturing world. The most important of his discoveries, were an extensive coal bed near the Dardanelles, large deposits of sulphur, chrome ore, meerschaum, iron ore, and emery; but, as most of these require an exercise of energy, and a proper *application* of capital, (which is not easily to be obtained in Turkey,) it is to be feared that they will not be turned to the same advantage as they would be elsewhere, or under another government. The mineral resources of Turkey are very great. Her copper mines are among the first in the world; her coal formation is tolerably extensive, particularly on the shores of the Black sea. The deposits of iron are immense, and her lead and silver mines of some importance. Antimony is found in great abundance, as well as sulphur, chrome, arsenic and emery. Turkey and Greece have the monopoly of emery, and none of it is now used in the arts that does not come from one or the other of these countries. As the proper operation of mining depends upon energy and the economical application of capital by *individual* effort, it is much to be feared that Turkey reaps but a small portion of the benefits she might derive from that resource—for the government undertakes to monopolize all mines. We regret that our space will not permit us to do more at present than to make a brief extract from that portion of the "memoir" which treats of the commercial consideration of emery.

"The use of emery in the arts is of very ancient date, a fact proved by works on hard stones, that could not have been executed except by emery or minerals of that nature. It is very probable that emery coming from the localities which have been mentioned, was used in former ages by the Greeks and Romans. For example, the locality of *Gunuch-Dagh* is immediately by the ancient Magnesia on the Meandre, and between Ephesus and Tralles, twelve miles from each of these cities, and the same distance from Tyria; in all of these cities the arts flourished, and none more than that of cutting hard stones, if we are allowed to judge from the specimens of their skill in this art, that have come down to us. Nevertheless, the quantity of emery formerly employed was insignificant in comparison to the quantity now required, more particularly within the last twenty years, since the use of plate glass has been extended. The annual consumption at the present time is about *fifteen hundred tons*.

"For various reasons the island of Naxos furnished for several centuries almost exclusively the emery used in the arts, as much for the facility with which it was obtained, as for the uniformity of its quality. The emery exists in very great abundance on this island, and notwithstanding the quantity already extracted, there still remain immense deposits of it.

"The price of this substance at the end of the last century, was from forty to fifty dollars a ton, and between 1820 and 1835, it was at times even less. About this period the monopoly of the Naxos emery was purchased from the Greek government by an English merchant, who so regulated the quantity given to commerce, that the price gradually rose from forty to

one hundred and forty dollars the ton, a price at which it was sold in 1846 and 1847. It was at this time that I commenced examining and developing the emery foundations of Asia Minor, until then unknown; and after making a report to the Turkish government, the monopoly of the emery of Turkey was sold to a mercantile house in Smyrna, and since then the price of this article has diminished to fifty and seventy dollars the ton, according to the quality. I speak of the prices in the English market."

CONSTANTINOPLE, or Stamboul, as it is sometimes called, the capital of the Ottoman Empire, is one of the most magnificent and beautiful cities in Europe. If its suburbs are included, its dimensions are greater than those of either London or Paris; and (our own crescent city not excepted) is the most favorably situated for commercial advantages of any city in the world. By means of the canals of the Dardanelles and the White and Black seas, it formerly carried on the most extensive trade of any of the eastern ports. These canals are called its doors. When the wind blows from the north, no entrance can be made through the southern door, and *vice versa*. Its principal imports from the Black Sea are corn, iron, timber, tallow and furs, and cotton stuffs, yarn, tin, woolen, silks, watches and jewelry, paper, glass, indigo, &c., &c., from various parts of Europe. Corn and coffee are imported from Alexandria, and sugar is brought from the East and West Indies. The principal merchants are the English, French, and other Europeans, who are called *Franks*.

As far back as 1825, the Sublime Porte made overtures to the American government for the negociation of a treaty between the two countries. The treaty, however, was not ratified until 1830. At that time considerable trade was carried on between Boston, New-York and Smyrna, mostly in American cotton cloths. Some vessels had even gone up to Constantinople, and our government was desirous of obtaining for them the right of entering the Black Sea, where they could compete with the British commerce. Mr. J. P. Brown, the drogoman of the American Legation, who has resided there for many years—in an able article on the American commerce of the Black Sea, suggests many valuable hints on our commercial relations with Turkey. We have since had the pleasure of conversing with him on the subject, while on a visit to this city with his excellency, *Amin Bey*. He thinks that if we would establish a commercial or consular agent at Trebizon, who would inform himself thoroughly of the trade of the Turkish ports, it would be of incalculable advantage to our commercial prospects. The English have adopted this system for a long time, and with eminent success. They select for this appointment merchants who have been unfortunate in business, but of good moral character, and extensive experience in the commerce and language of the east, with which they become familiar after a few years residence. They are permitted to conduct business on their own account, and receive a small salary for their services. In this manner the British government is enabled to be correctly informed with regard to the vessels of all nations, and the value of their cargoes, as well as the amount of the

exports from Turkey. It is believed that the adoption of this plan has placed it in their power to obtain a more accurate account of the statistics of the country than the Sublime Porte itself. Our cotton trade in Turkey is considerably diminished by the cheapness of the English manufactures ; and although ours is admitted to be the finest article, the indigent circumstances of the people compel them to buy an inferior quality, if they can get it at a lower price. The commercial policy of the Turkish government is based upon maxims of practical wisdom. It cherishes no principles of protection in favor of agriculture against commerce, nor of commerce *vs.* agriculture. It leaves these two branches of public industry to regulate themselves. It has no discriminating duties, and all objects of traffic pay *ad valorem* duties, or duties based upon their respective values in the Ottoman dominions. These values are established approximately, once in seven or ten years, by a commission of merchants selected of equal numbers, from among the chief merchants of the contracting power, and of officers of the Sultan's government. Each legation of foreign powers at the Porte has a separate tariff except that of the United States. Each legation appoints a commission to estimate the value of the objects or articles produced in its own country, and adds to it all those of all other legations ; so that the British tariff contains all the articles of English produce and manufacture, as well as those of every other country. As the American legation has never been authorized by its government to draw up a tariff of its own commerce, American merchants in Turkey are compelled to be satisfied with the tariff of the "most favored country," which is for them, at least, the English nation. England is wide awake to her own commercial interests, and as she knows that the American Legation has no tariff of its own, she comprises all American manufactures and produce in her tariff, and fixes an amount of duty for them far beyond their real value. The British legation well knows that her merchants will not import our American corn or cotton goods from Boston, and it establishes for these articles an excessive amount of duties for the benefit of the *American* importers ! This fact, though frequently brought to the notice of the Department of State, has not as yet attracted the attention which it deserves.

When our treaty was made with the Sublime Porte in 1830, our trade with Odessa and Constantinople was very limited. We procured hides, and even some *barley* from the former place, and to the latter we carried a considerable quantity of coffee, sugar, and cotton goods of our own manufacture. The only drawback to this trade then was the frequent and long detention by adverse winds of vessels at the entrance to the Straits of the Dardanelles. This detention often caused our vessels to discharge their cargoes at Marseilles, Trieste, or Smyrna, into cheaper bottoms under Greek, Austrian, or Italian flags, and return with cargoes for some port in Europe, or in the United States. This difficulty, still, in some measure exists, though we have recently seen it stated in the papers that a number of tugs are soon to be stationed at the Dardanelles, for the purpose of towing vessels through them. The English government, for some

years, opposed the formation of the treaty of commerce between the Porte and the American government. "It was apprehensive that our commerce with the Black Sea would increase." Its own trade was at that time very limited—not more than ten or twelve ships annually—while it now has some 500, and we have not a *single* one!

Up to 1838, the Sublime Porte granted monopolies of different articles of commerce to individuals for divers periods, and foreign merchants were in the habit of availing themselves of this system to purchase all the produce of one or more provinces of the empire for their own benefit exclusively. This often proved ruinous to the fair trader, whose calculations and contracts were often annihilated by the foresight of his more active and influential competitor. To abolish such an injurious system, the British Embassy agreed to pay a higher amount of export and import dues, in case the Porte would for ever abolish monopolies. Up to that time, (1838), all articles of export and import had paid only 3 per cent. *ad valorem* duties. The British Embassy agreed to add 9 to the export, and 2 per cent. to the imports. All produce in the Sultan's dominions pays him, as *Caliph*, a tithe of the whole. The provinces are also taxed irregularly for the support of the government post and the roads, or indeed for any other casual outlay which the province may need. These, however, do not amount to a great deal, and taxation is very light in every part of Turkey. The agriculturist is the principal sufferer: 22 per cent. of his produce, and sometimes 10 per cent. more, is taken by the Sultan and the customer; whilst the merchant, and even the manufacturer, pays little or nothing.

Another of the greatest evils of the Turkish system is, that no land or property tax is levied in the capital. This is in accordance with an ancient oriental custom in favor of the residence of the prince or sovereign. Much of the revenue of the empire is carried to Constantinople, and there expended in the erection of magnificent barracks, palaces, hospitals, mausoleums, mosques, and, of late years, some schools—all at the expense of the people of the provinces, who neither enjoy nor care for them.

The commerce of Constantinople alone may be calculated as being, annually, somewhat as follows:

British vessels.....	1,000	arrivals.	Neapolitan vessels.....	60	arrivals.
Austrian ".....	2,000	"	Russian ".....	4,000	"
French ".....	100	"	Belgian ".....	30	"
Sardinian ".....	2,500	"	Hanseatic towns.....	20	"
American ".....	none,		Ottoman ".....	5,000	"
	(or 1 in 2 years.)				(small and great.)
Swedish ".....	10	"	Prussian ".....	20	"
Danish ".....	6	"	Portuguese ".....	none	
Greek ".....	3,000	"	Spanish ".....	4	"
				17,750	

Calculating these at 100 tons each, it would give about 1,775,000 tons; and allowing ten men to each vessel, there would be employed

near 177,500 men engaged in this trade.* This is, however, much below the correct estimate, for there is a very extensive coast trade carried on in small craft under Frank or Turkish flags. There are at present some 50 or 60 large steamers running between Constantinople and other ports of the empire and Europe. A line now runs between

Constantinople and Marseilles every ten days.

"	Trieste	"
"	Southampton	1 per month.
"	Trebizond	2 per week.
"	Odessa	1 per week.
"	The Danube	"
"	Smyrna	"
"	Nicomedia and Gemlik	2 per week.
"	Beyrouth in Syria	every ten days.

Two steamers ply upon the Bosphorus and to the "Prince's Island" daily, and some are employed in towing vessels in the harbor and to the Black Sea.

The English manufacturers have succeeded in manufacturing cotton goods of a lighter, and consequently of a cheaper quality than those imported into Turkey in 1831. In this way they have driven ours entirely out of the market, and the midland countries of Asia Minor, Georgia, Circassia, and all Persia, are now supplied from English looms, many of them bearing the stamp of American cottons. It is very common to hear American cotton goods cried out in the streets of Constantinople, made in Manchester.

Among the chief articles of import into this country from Turkey, is common wool, costing there about 10 or 11 cents per pound. On this there is a duty in the United States, of $2\frac{1}{2}$ cents per pound; whilst English, French and Belgian coarse woollen cloths, and other articles made from the same wool, only pay in the United States forty per cent. In Europe, this wool pays nothing, or only enough for statistical purposes, and America is provided with goods by them, which she could easily manufacture for herself if her tariff would permit her. As it costs no more to keep a Merino sheep than one which produces a coarser wool, the former only are raised in European countries, and indeed in our own country. Thus the breeding of sheep requires no protective tariff. If there must, however, be a duty upon coarse wool, there should also be an equivalent one upon coarse cloths; or, if the latter are to be imported free, or nearly so, then let wool be equally favored. As it now stands, our tariff levies a tax upon all the coarse wools which we import from Turkey for the advantage of the foreign manufacturer. The owners of the water-looms in Lowell and Lawrence have a hard game to keep up against those of England; and if we ever regain our former trade with the Sultan's dominions in cotton goods and coarse wools, it will not be due to the fostering care of a wise tariff, but to the unceasing industry and enterprise of the American manufacturer.†

* As each vessel must arrive several times, this calculation is of course erroneous.—EDITOR.

† The kind of triumph we most favor.—EDITOR.

The word *Turkey* is said to be of barbarous import, signifying a wanderer or boor, and is derived from a Tartarian tribe who had their primitive home in *Turkestan*. Its population is estimated at about 12,000,000, consisting principally of Bulgarians, Bosniacs, Servians, Wallachians and other Slavonic tribes, among whom are interspersed Albanians, Armenians, Jews, Gipsies and Franks, together with a promiscuous collection of foreigners from various portions of the globe. Of these sects, the Armenians are worthy of notice, as the most respectable of the Christian inhabitants of the Levant. For a long period, they were among the most warlike of the Asiatics; but after their conquest by the Persians, they exchanged their predatory life for the more peaceful labors of agriculture. This is considered a solitary instance in the history of nations, where a single individual has been able to change the whole character of the people, apparently by the simple fiat of his will. Like the Jews, they have no abiding home; many of them wander about in strange lands as traders, with whom it is said that Europeans and foreigners prefer to deal to any other of the Eastern sects. Soon after their subjugation, a colony was established at Jalfa, in the suburbs of Ispahān, and cultivated the growth of silk and other precious and costly commodities. "Of mild but persevering tempers; sober and patient in all their pursuits; honest, though skilful, in their dealings; accommodating in their habits and manners, without losing their individual character, they did not fail to acquire a reputation in every country in which they were directed by the enterprise of traffic." They are entirely absorbed in the pursuit of one object—the attainment of wealth. They have a language of their own, but care nothing about science and the cultivation of letters. They are fond of religious books, and purchase with avidity Bibles, furnished by the British and Foreign Bible Society. They have a patriarch at their head who favors the dissemination of all such works as may tend to make them contented with their lot. Like the Quakers, they are sober and industrious, and are greatly averse to war. They have a strong antipathy for the Greeks, on account of the religious differences that exist between them. "The Greeks despise them for their timidity; and arrogating to themselves exclusively the name of Christians, they seem to exclude the Armenians from the Christian community. The chief Armenians of Constantinople are, as well as the Jews, money-brokers, and they receive a small premium for examining the coin in the many bargains which go through their hands. They also buy the specie when cried down, and at a low price, and re-issue it in loans, with which they accommodate the Turks at the exorbitant interest of between twenty and thirty per cent. This is the chief source of their wealth. Many of their corn merchants are in good circumstances, and also their goldsmiths, as only a few of any other nation exercise that trade. There are Armenian surgeons, physicians and apothecaries. The greater number of bakers are of their nation. They are the chief house-builders, masons, joiners, turners, braziers and locksmiths; and as porters, they show themselves the most laborious, and, perhaps, the strongest people in the

world. Sixteen of them, eight before and eight behind, with their arms extended across on each other's shoulders, will carry a load of wine slung on four poles, throwing three hundred weight upon each man. They march in a quick lockstep, accompanying each pace with the groan of a pavior, and apparently in the last agony of exertion. The Armenians are also water-carriers, sherbet-sellers, boatmen, fishermen, silk-twisters, ribbon-weavers and tent-makers, and are accounted the best farriers and horsebreakers in the country. Their manners and customs mark them for a peculiar people. They have a superstition, that they can hold a visionary conversation with their parents and children after death. They are accustomed to gather around the tombs of their family accompanied by their priests, who offer up prayers for the souls of the departed. To perpetuate their memory, they erect *mausolea*, upon which they engrave the implements of trade by which he obtained his livelihood." But the most extraordinary circumstance is, that they are also fond of displaying how they came by their death; you therefore see on their tombs the effigies of men—sometimes hanging, sometimes strangled, and sometimes beheaded, with their heads in their hands. To account for their extraordinary fondness for displaying the infamous death of their friends, they say that no Armenian is ever executed for a real crime; but when a man has acquired a sufficient fortune to become an object of cupidity to the Turks, he is then on some pretext put to death, that his property may be confiscated; an executed man, therefore, implies only a man of wealth and consequence. This display is a bitter, but just satire on Turkish justice, though the Turks are not so stupid as to understand it. We will give a specimen of an epitaph:—

" You see my place of burial here;
I give my goods to the Robbers,
My soul to the Regions of Death,
The world I leave to God,
And my Blood I shed in the Holy Spirit;
You who meet my Tomb,
Say for me,
‘Lord, I have sinned.’
1197."

Travellers, who have visited Turkey, and many who have been long resident there, give various, though generally concurrent testimony with regard to the character of the genuine Turk. We will select an extract from one who has had every opportunity of forming a correct opinion:

"The Turk is distinguished from other races by nothing so much as by his phlegmatic temperament, which generally disposes him to quiescence and indolence, and admits of many of the passive virtues, but which, under the influence of any powerful excitement, passes from insensibility into the most unrestrained violence and excess. This habitual sedateness and inertness, in combination with a latent energy, may serve to explain some of the inconsistencies in the national character and history. The Turk is habitually temperate;

he never tastes the forbidden juice, however, but he gets drunk. He is mild and grave, but when provoked he is infuriated. He has little fanaticism, but when his religious fervor is kindled, it becomes a brutal frenzy. He is not habitually cruel ; he is sometimes generous and humane ; but he is, of all men, the most remorseless in his cruelty. He will not luxuriate in the agonies of an enemy, and trample upon his victim ; he has little taste for the more exquisite refinements of revenge ; in this respect, notwithstanding some doubtful anecdotes, he displays less of the demon in his worst excesses than either Greek or Frank. But, then, he butchers with less compunction and with a more entire contempt of life ; his eye never pities, and his heart never bleeds. Age or sex excites no commiseration in him, who, on a slight provocation, or on policy, dooms the wife of his bosom to the death of a cat, and his children to the bowstring. The same insensibility displays itself in the smooth-faced perfidy with which he can inveigle, in order to destroy, his unsuspecting victim—perhaps his old associate or guest. In fact, alike in his pleasures and in his cruelties, the Turk is a cold-blooded animal—coldly voluptuous and coldly cruel—deliberate alike in good and evil ; less to be dreaded when choleric, than when concealing his emotions ; not intolerant—far less so as a Moslem, than either Greek or Papist ; not ungrateful, not inhospitable, not unkind to his dependents ; not incapable of generosity and amiableness ; but naturally arrogant, sensual and implacable ; knowing no medium between the despot and the slave ; too generally a hypocrite in all things—so much so as to please the Frank, whom he despises ; in a word, exhibiting more or less the deadening and debasing effects of a despotic government, oriental prejudices, and a pharisaical and sensual creed."

In a political point of view, the condition of Turkey is truly deplorable. She continues to exist by sufferance, or by the forbearance of the other European powers. Since the battle of Navarino, when her fleet was destroyed, and Greece, soon after, rescued from her grasp, she has been reduced to the most abject state of dependence upon the mutual jealousy of Russia, France and England. The Janizaries, who were once the glory and bulwark of the empire, are now its most dangerous and formidable enemies. All despotic governments become military, and the soldiery, sooner or later, seize upon the sovereign power. A prince who is not subject to any law, and wishes to use arbitrary power in governing men, can only have slaves for subjects, who take no interest in his fate. As there is no law which confines his power within fixed limits, there is, also, none to protect him, and to serve as a foundation for his greatness. He inspires no confidence, and must very soon fear the people, by whom he knows he must be hated. As soon as the military, upon whom he depends, discovers its own strength, it becomes mutinous, and revolts, and as the prince is unable to repress them, it becomes insolent, and finally deposes its master. Without entering into the history of the causes which led to her present position, we will give a few of the *speculations* of a writer, who has recently visited the country, with a view to ascertain her resources. He is an English-

man, and we must make some allowances for his national prejudices, but we think that, in the main, he is plausible enough :

" In rushing into a war against all our old allies, can we rely upon our single new ally, France ? Or will France enter upon such a war, with faith and full confidence in England ? The notion that Russia is the natural ally of France, did not originate with M. Lamartine and the February Revolution ; it dates many years back, and it is not confined to the romancing historian and poetical politician, and his school. Other French politicians entertain, at this moment, as a capital point of political faith, that France has more to gain from a close alliance with the great power of the North, than from any other league and combination ; that by such an alliance, Austria, Prussia, and all the minor powers of the European Continent, would be crushed, and there would remain only two nations in Europe, France and Russia—England 'being cast off as a mere satellite in the ocean.' By the scheme of this alliance, Russia is, or was, to have Constantinople, the Black Sea, the Propontis, the Dardanelles, and the Adriatic ; and the French to hold Spain, Italy, Belgium, the Rhine, and nearly all Germany. In a country where revolution is not yet over, and absolutely nothing fixed, a sudden change may happen, likely to bring into temporary power men quite capable of attempting to realize this gigantic and remorseless scheme. The condition of France alone is an obstacle and a warning against any alliance with her, and ought to be decisive of the question. On the other side, the French are very generally disposed to regard with distrust and suspicion our views and objects ; many of their journalists, and other writers, are affirming, at this moment, that we are only looking to our own commercial interests and territorial aggrandizement ; that we have an eye on Egypt, as a necessary link in the chain which connects us with India ; that we are hungering after Candia and Cyprus, and all the rich and fertile islands of the Archipelago. * * * * * I know that Russia has received insults difficult to be borne by a mighty power, when proceeding from so very weak, un-Christian, and wretched a country as Turkey. I am aware of the almost irresistible temptation which has been offered to the Emperor Nicholas for many years—but I am not aware that the Czar contemplates any invasion. The course pursued by the emperor should really seem to indicate that he contemplated no invasion or hostility whatsoever. But this is to be considered—the force which fled, after the rout of Arad, with Bem and Kossuth, was so desperate and so numerous, that it could not safely be left on the frontiers of a country which they had recently made the scene of a most remorseless and destructive civil war ; and for the sake of Hungary, and his ally, the Emperor of Austria, the Czar must have called for the removal of those firebrands at the time he did, even though his demands might agitate Europe, and provoke and put on their guard the powers disposed to protect the Sultan, thus depriving Russia of the advantages to be derived from an unexpected coup-de-main.

" No one looks forward to the great event, the breaking up of the

Ottoman Empire, as a blessing to humanity and civilization. Contemplate, for one moment, that Russia is to possess all those unpeopled, but vast, productive, rich and beautiful regions. The distribution must and will, at some not distant day, be left to the decision of some congress of *all* Christendom. If such a congress could be settled without being preceded by the horrors of a warfare among the Christian powers, the advantage would be unalloyed and the blessing complete. Wage war as you will, it must come to this at last—a congress, and the expulsion of the Turks as a governing power from Europe and the greater part of Asia Minor. If the world is now so unsettled, and if we will aim at a settlement, and one which will be enduring, we must come to a decision on the Turkish question *now*. If it is left undecided, our settlement will be most incomplete ; Turkey will be a standing *casus belli*, exposing every year the peace of Christendom to a sudden interruption.

"The Turks themselves seem to be generally convinced that their final hour is approaching.—'We are no longer Musselmen—the Musselman sabre is broken. The Osmanlies will be driven out of Europe by the Ghiaours, and driven through Asia, to the regions from which they first sprung. It is *Kismet!* We cannot resist destiny !' Some consoled themselves with the dream of a very strange Millennium :—after a long series of years, and an entire abasement of the Musselman, and of Musselman people, JESUS, THE GREAT PROPHET, would return to earth, gather up the scattered fragments of the believers of Mahomet, reanimate their faith and their ancient valor, and give them, until the world's end, dominion over all the earth, with one religion, and one unbroken, undisturbed peace and happiness."*

* Kossuth has been sent to Kutayia, in Asia Minor, for the term of *one* year, and not a prisoner for life, as was at first imperiously insisted upon by the Czar and the Emperor of Austria. As we are credibly informed, it is not true that the Sultan has refused his protection, unless Kossuth would abjure his religion and become a Musselman. The Sultan has at his own expense fitted out a vessel for the purpose of conveying the Hungarian refugees to the United States. Would it be unreasonable to expect to hear, before long, that Turkey had become a *republic*, and that a *holy alliance* had been formed between the Republic of Turkey and that of the United States, to enter upon a crusade to break down the monarchies of Europe ?

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE.

1.—FOREIGN COMMERCE OF CHARLESTON.

THE tabular statement of the exports from Charleston to foreign countries during the year 1850, it will be perceived amount in their aggregate value to \$12,394,497, being an increase of nearly a million and a half of dollars over the exports of 1849, and of four millions and a half on those of 1848. It is gratifying also that this increase of exports has been attended with a corresponding increase of imports, as will be seen by the following comparative statement of duties collected, on foreign imports, during the years specified:

Duties for the year 1850.....	\$533,706 95
Duties for the year 1849.....	421,774 68
Duties for the year 1848.....	397,593 42
Increase of the year 1850 over 1849.....	111,932 27
Increase of the year 1850 over 1840.....	205,813 53

We may further state, that if the goods in the Public Warehouse had been taken into consumption, the aggregate amount for the past year would have been considerably over \$600,000, as the quantity of goods similarly situated at the close of last year, was comparatively trifling. The evidence which these results afford of the commercial growth and prosperity of our city, is just cause of rejoicing, and should cheer on our merchants, and all our citizens, to more vigorous exertions, to make that growth sure and progressive.

Abstract of Goods, Wares, and Merchandise, of the Growth, Produce, and Manufacture of the United States, Exported from the District of Charleston, from the 1st January to 31st December, 1850, both inclusive:

WHENCE EXPORTED.	Lumber.		Naval Stores.		Rice.		
	Quantity. M. Feet.	Value. Doll.	Tar, Pitch, Bals.	Rosin, Tyr.	Value. Doll.	Quantity. Tuness.	Value. Doll.
Russia.....					1,512		33,996
Prussia.....			672	.664	1,881		42,769
Sweden.....			50	.77	156	.612	14,237
Denmark and Norway.....	22,638	.211			5,710	.110	488
Holland.....	6,516	.69		.836	1,666	.2,189	46,797
England, Man and Berwick.....	123,667	.7,296	6,455	9,497	35,170	16,695	342,974
Scotland.....	1,410	.300	100	.183	.566		
British West Indies.....	593,231	.9,857	.96	.17	183	.1,136	.5,059
The Hanse Towns & ports of Ger'y.....	387,668	.9,869	.539	.993	4,646	.7,523	146,883
French E'pean ports on Atlantic.....	102,999	.3,524	.136		147	.4,912	.104,826
French E'pean ports on Mediter'n.....		.60				.636	.14,463
Spanish E'pean ports on Mediter'n.....	53,450	.992	.300	.65	.458	.161	.3,063
Spanish E'pean ports on Atlantic.....	1,811,963	.40,889		.516	.900	.332	.7,460
French African ports.....	364,189	.6,477					
Belgium.....	360,329	.5,412		.12	.27	.4,067	.83,157
Cuba.....	475,773	.8,474				.13,198	.260,066
Buenos Ayres.....	336,031	.5,158					
	4,639,864	98,888	7,676	21,868	44,583	60,564	1,215,531

WHENCE EXPORTED.	Cotton.		Miscellan's		Total val. to each Ctry. Doll.	
	Sea Island. Pounds.	Upland. Pounds.	Value. Doll.	Articles.		
Russia.....			.314,261	.40,076	.74,072	
Prussia.....			.38,552	.4,917	.48,343	
Sweden.....			.347,273	.41,699	.56,092	
Denmark and Norway.....			.581,317	.71,580	.110,699	
Holland.....					.120,112	
England, Man and Berwick.....	3,774,627	.60,697	156	.8,612,944	.6,919	.9,004,603
Scotland.....			.1,970,902	.247,715	.74	.248,655
British West Indies.....					.14,426	.29,592
The Hanse Towns & ports of Germany.....			.708,602	.95,114		.256,512
French E'pean ports on Atlantic.....	833,153	.8,474,744		.805,093	.1,900	.914,790
French E'pean ports on Mediter'n.....			.174,287	.18,715		.33,238
Spanish E'pean ports on Mediter'n.....			.7,942,731	.954,812		.959,325
Spanish E'pean ports on Atlantic.....			.542,046	.69,877		.119,126
French African ports.....						.6,477
Belgium.....			.377,879	.45,763		.134,359
Cuba.....					.4,571	.273,111
Buenos Ayres.....						.5,458
	4,607,780	81,478,743	11,008,305	27,190	\$12,394,497	

Exported in American vessels, \$7,181,729; exported in foreign vessels, \$5,212,768. Total, \$12,394,497. Amount exported in the year 1849, \$11,085,854. Amount exported in the year 1848, \$7,971,745. Increase 1850, over that of 1849, \$1,308,643. Increase 1850, over that of 1848, \$4,422,752.—[Charleston Mercury.]

2.—THE CHARLESTON LINE OF STEAMERS.

We announce with great satisfaction that the stock necessary to the organization of the Atlantic Steam Navigation Company, was all taken yesterday in a few minutes after the books were opened. This, with the State's subscription, which it secures, places beyond doubt the construction of the first two vessels of the line, and we have entire confidence that they will be speedily followed by the others. The readiness with which the stock was subscribed, shows that the true value is set upon this enterprise, so important, in many aspects, to Charleston and South Carolina.

3.—PRICES, &c., AT NEW-ORLEANS FOR FIVE YEARS, TAKEN ON 1ST OF EACH MONTH, OF COTTON, &c., TOGETHER WITH TOTAL RECEIPTS, AND CROPS OF THE UNITED STATES.

MIDDLING TO FAIR COTTON.

	1849.	1850.	1848.	1849.	1847.	1848.	1846.	1847.	1845.	1846.
	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.
September.	9	11 1/4	5 1/2	—	10 1/2	12	7 1/2	9	7 1/2	8 1/2
October.	9	12	5 1/2	7	10	11	8 1/2	10	6 1/2	8 1/2
November.	9	11	5	6	7 1/2	8 1/2	9	10 1/2	7	8
December.	10	11 1/4	5 1/2	6 1/2	6 1/2	7 1/2	9	10 1/2	6 1/2	7 1/2
January.	10	11 1/4	5 1/2	6 1/2	6 1/2	7 1/2	10	11 1/4	6 1/2	7 1/2
February.	11	12	6 1/2	7 1/2	6 1/2	8	11 1/2	13	7 1/2	7 1/2
March.	10	12	6 1/2	7 1/2	6 1/2	7 1/2	9 1/2	11	6 1/2	8 1/2
April.	10	12	6 1/2	7 1/2	6 1/2	7 1/2	10 1/2	11 1/2	6 1/2	8 1/2
May.	11	13	6 1/2	7 1/2	5	6 1/2	10 1/2	12 1/2	6 1/2	8 1/2
June.	11	13	7	8 1/2	5 1/2	7 1/2	9 1/2	11 1/2	6 1/2	8
July.	11	13	7	8 1/2	5 1/2	7 1/2	9 1/2	10 1/2	6 1/2	8
August.	12	13	9	—	5 1/2	7 1/2	10 1/2	12	7	8 1/2
Receipts at New-Orleans.	797,387	1,100,636	1,188,733	707,324	1,053,633					
Crop of United States.	2,100,000	2,700,000	2,350,000	1,800,000	2,100,537					

SUGAR ON THE LEVEE.

	1849.	1850.	1848.	1849.	1847.	1848.	1846.	1847.	1845.	1846.
	Cents.									
September.	3	5 1/2	2 1/2	4 1/2	5	7 1/2	4 1/2	7 1/2	6	6 1/2
October.	4	6 1/2	2 1/2	4 1/2	5	7 1/2	6 1/2	9	6	7 1/2
November.	3	6	3	4 1/2	3	5 1/2	5 1/2	7	5	7
December.	3	6	2 1/2	4 1/2	2 1/2	5	4 1/2	7	4	6 1/2
January.	2	5	2 1/2	4 1/2	2 1/2	5 1/2	5	7 1/2	4 1/2	6 1/2
February.	2	5	2 1/2	5	2 1/2	5	5	7 1/2	4	6 1/2
March.	2	5	2 1/2	5 1/2	2 1/2	5	5 1/2	7 1/2	4	6 1/2
April.	2	5	2 1/2	5 1/2	2 1/2	5	5 1/2	7 1/2	4	6 1/2
May.	2	5	2 1/2	5 1/2	1 1/2	4 1/2	5	7 1/2	4 1/2	6 1/2
June.	3	5 1/2	2 1/2	5	1 1/2	4 1/2	5	7 1/2	4	6 1/2
July.	4	6	2 1/2	4 1/2	2 1/2	4 1/2	5	7 1/2	4	6 1/2
August.	4 1/2	6 1/2	3	5 1/2	2 1/2	4 1/2	5 1/2	8	4 1/2	7 1/2

MOLASSES ON THE LEVEE.

	1849.	1850.	1848.	1849.	1847.	1848.	1846.	1847.	1845.	1846.
	Cents.									
September.	10	20	15	20	28	32	15	22	24	27
October.	10	20	17	21	28	32	20	25	21	24
November.	24	24 1/2	23 1/2	24	22 1/2	23	26	26 1/2	21	22
December.	20	20 1/2	19 1/2	20	19 1/2	23	23	23 1/2	20	—
January.	17	19 1/2	18	19 1/2	17	17 1/2	24 1/2	25	21	21 1/2
February.	15	20 1/2	20	21 1/2	17	19	27	—	21	21 1/2
March.	12	21 1/2	15	19	15	21	25	29 1/2	22	23
April.	10	21	15	19	15	21	25	29	25	25
May.	10	23	12 1/2	18	12	16	26	30	23	23 1/2
June.	21	27	12	18 1/2	15	20	26	30	18	20
July.	25	33	8	18	15	20	26	30	15	20
August.	20	33	10	20	15	20	28	31	15	21

FLOUR.

	1848.	1850.	1848.	1850.	1847.	1848.	1846.	1847.	1845.	1846.
	Cents.									
September	41 a 52	4 a 42	42 a 6	31 a 4						
October	5 a 52	5 a 52	4 a 5	4 a 5	4 a 5	4 a 5	4 a 5	4 a 5	4 a 5	4 a 5
November	42 a 52	42 a 52	52 a 52							
December	5 a 52	5 a 52	4 a 5	5 a 52	4 a 6	4 a 5	5 a 7	5 a 8	5 a 8	5 a 8
January	5 a 52	41 a 42	52 a 6	42 a 52	6 a 6	52 a 52	6 a 6	52 a 52	6 a 6	52 a 52
February	5 a 52	42 a 52	4 a 5	52 a 52	6 a 6	52 a 52	6 a 6	52 a 52	6 a 6	52 a 52
March	52 a 6	42 a 52	5 a 52	5 a 52	52 a 52	52 a 52	52 a 52	52 a 52	52 a 52	52 a 52
April	52 a 62	42 a 52	52 a 52	52 a 52	6 a 6	52 a 52	6 a 6	52 a 52	6 a 6	52 a 52
May	52 a 62	42 a 52	42 a 52	52 a 52						
June	62 a 72	42 a 52	42 a 52	42 a 52	62 a 72					
July	52 a 72	32 a 52	42 a 52	42 a 52	6 a 6	52 a 52	6 a 6	52 a 52	6 a 6	52 a 52
August	4 a 62	6 a 72	4 a 72	4 a 72	4 a 42					

MESS AND PRIME PORK.

	1848.	1850.	1848.	1850.	1848.	1848.
	Mess.	Prime.	Mess.	Prime.	Mess.	Prime.
September	91 a 92	82 a 82	811 a 112	112 a 112	9 a 9	—
October	92 a 10	82 a 82	122 a —	102 a —	102 a 102	—
November	92 a 92	82 a 82	102 a 102	102 a 102	92 a 92	10 a 9
December	102 a 11	82 a 82	10 a 102	10 a 102	9 a 9	9 a 9
January	92 a 92	82 a 82	—	11 a 112	92 a 92	92 a 92
February	92 a 10	72 a 72	102 a 102	112 a 112	92 a 92	10 a 10
March	92 a 92	72 a 72	72 a 72	102 a 102	9 a 9	92 a 92
April	92 a 92	72 a 72	10 a 102	10 a 102	9 a 9	—
May	92 a 10	72 a 72	8 a 92	92 a 92	82 a 82	—
June	102 a 102	82 a 82	92 a 92	92 a 92	82 a 82	82 a 82
July	—	12 a 92	—	102 a 102	82 a 82	82 a 82
August	112 a 112	—	92 a 92	102 a 102	82 a 82	82 a 82

COMPARATIVE PRICES OF CORN, IN SACKS.

	1848.	1850.	1848.	1850.	1847.	1848.	1846.	1847.	1845.	1846.
	Cents.									
September	35 a 46	52 a 57	50 a 55	50 a 55	36 a 40	40 a 40	40 a 42	40 a 42	40 a 42	40 a 42
October	42 a 48	48 a 53	50 a 75	50 a 75	60 a 65	65 a 65	35 a 38	35 a 38	35 a 38	35 a 38
November	50 a 53	52 a 58	41 a 50	50 a 50	58 a 75	75 a 75	45 a 50	45 a 50	45 a 50	45 a 50
December	46 a 52	42 a 51	45 a 50	50 a 50	60 a 70	70 a 70	80 a 82	80 a 82	80 a 82	80 a 82
January	— a 47	35 a 40	54 a 60	60 a 60	55 a 67	67 a 67	55 a 63	55 a 63	55 a 63	55 a 63
February	45 a 50	34 a 43	40 a 55	55 a 55	80 a 90	90 a 90	40 a 50	40 a 50	40 a 50	40 a 50
March	50 a 57	30 a 41	36 a 42	42 a 42	75 a 90	90 a 90	47 a 52	47 a 52	47 a 52	47 a 52
April	50 a 56	20 a 40	30 a 38	38 a 38	80 a 95	95 a 95	42 a 50	42 a 50	42 a 50	42 a 50
May	76 a 83	30 a 45	22 a 28	28 a 28	55 a 70	70 a 70	40 a 50	40 a 50	40 a 50	40 a 50
June	64 a 70	50 a 55	32 a 36	36 a 36	65 a 80	80 a 80	35 a 40	35 a 40	35 a 40	35 a 40
July	75 a 85	50 a 53	33 a 39	39 a 39	65 a 75	75 a 75	25 a 32	25 a 32	25 a 32	25 a 32
August	75 a 85	50 a 56	36 a 42	42 a 42	40 a 50	50 a 50	30 a 35	30 a 35	30 a 35	30 a 35

MONTHLY ARRIVALS OF FLAT-BOATS, FOR THE SEASON.—1849 AND 1850.

	Month.	Ohio.	Kentucky.	Indiana.	Virginia.	Penn.	Illino.	Missouri.	Arkansas.	Tenn.	Mississippi.	Total.
Sept.	10	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Oct.	10	4	13	—	—	—	3	—	—	—	—	30
Nov.	13	11	29	—	—	—	1	—	—	—	—	54
Dec.	10	11	41	2	12	1	—	—	—	—	—	77
Jan.	36	30	34	—	45	5	1	—	8	1	—	160
Feb.	17	20	62	—	13	4	—	—	9	1	—	126
March	11	11	53	—	—	—	11	—	11	5	—	105
April	4	8	37	—	1	5	—	1	4	4	—	64
May	9	19	11	—	—	1	—	1	10	1	—	52
June	5	—	6	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	—	12
July	2	10	—	—	2	—	—	2	—	—	—	14
Aug.	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	—	5
Total	119	194	298	2	73	31	4	2	44	12	699	

Also, about 225 from various states, with cattle, sheep, hogs, lumber, &c.—making a total of 924.

4.—TONNAGE OF FREE AND SLAVE STATES.

The New-Orleans Bulletin condenses the following table from the Treasury Report on Commerce, 1851:

TONNAGE CLEARED FROM THE UNITED STATES FOR THE YEARS 1850 AND 1849.

States. Free.	Tonnage, 1850.			Tonnage, 1849.		
	American.	Foreign.	Aggregate.	American.	Foreign.	Aggregate.
Maine.....	111,123	91,014	202,137	127,368	66,081	193,449
New-Hampshire.....	682	7,531	8,213	1,023	5,819	6,842
Vermont.....	81,073	1,783	82,856	97,213	825	97,543
Massachusetts.....	272,278	274,674	546,752	260,187	244,067	524,254
Rhode Island.....	16,770	1,705	18,475	15,568	2,315	17,883
Connecticut.....	17,515	9,802	27,317	20,440	3,719	24,159
New York.....	1,411,557	737,539	2,149,096	1,358,643	784,514	2,143,157
New-Jersey.....	150	981	1,131	—	428	428
Pennsylvania.....	81,276	30,342	111,618	93,322	27,005	120,327
Ohio.....	15,483	18,322	33,807	6,957	9,521	16,778
Michigan.....	7,982	46,719	54,701	33,919	90,605	124,524
Illinois.....	1,043	998	2,041	964	2,796	3,760
California.....	104,266	75,862	180,128	—	—	—
Total.	2,121,100	1,297,382	3,418,382	2,045,609	1,247,495	2,293,104
Slave.						
Delaware.....	—	—	—	1,091	1,599	2,690
Maryland.....	89,296	37,523	126,819	118,276	31,653	149,928
District of Columbia.....	1,520	200	1,720	2,320	—	2,320
Virginia.....	42,091	23,367	65,458	58,989	10,589	69,578
North Carolina.....	30,739	11,493	49,232	26,030	3,880	29,910
South Carolina.....	72,922	52,830	125,052	88,738	58,401	147,139
Georgia.....	31,039	51,524	72,563	31,150	53,713	84,863
Florida.....	10,023	12,154	22,156	20,507	10,922	3,429
Alabama.....	32,268	80,717	112,985	76,523	71,593	148,116
Louisiana.....	211,800	158,137	369,937	293,456	194,234	487,690
Texas.....	591	3,017	3,608	1,035	1,631	2,666
Total.	511,588	429,964	941,552	718,115	438,214	1,156,329
RECAPITULATION.						
	1850.			1849.		Am. excess since last year.
Free States—American tonnage.....	2,121,100			2,045,609		75,491
Foreign tonnage.....	1,297,382			1,247,495		
Excess of American tonnage.....		823,818			798,114	
Decrease of Foreign since last year.....	25,704					
Increase of American since last year.....						75,491
	1850.			1849.		Am. decrease since last year.
Slave States—American tonnage.....	511,588			718,115		206,527
Foreign tonnage.....	429,964			438,214		
Excess of American tonnage.....		81,624			279,901	
Increase of Foreign tonnage since last year.....			81,624			
Free States—Aggregate tonnage in 1850.....			3,418,382			Increase.
Aggregate tonnage in 1849.....			3,293,104			125,278
Slave States—Aggregate tonnage in 1850.....			941,552			Decrease.
Aggregate tonnage in 1849.....			1,156,329			214,777

FURTHER RECAPITULATION.

Free States—Aggregate tonnage in 1850..... 3,418,382

Aggregate tonnage in 1849..... 3,293,104

Increase.

125,278

Slave States—Aggregate tonnage in 1850..... 941,552

Aggregate tonnage in 1849..... 1,156,329

Decrease.

214,777

The above classification of tonnage belonging to the non-slaveholding and slaveholding States, furnish an instructive subject of comment. It will be seen, that in the free States there has been an *increase* in the aggregate tonnage the past year, over the preceding; while in the slave States there has been a decrease. Another fact is observable from the above recapitulation; in the free States, there has been an increase in the excess of American tonnage; while in the slave States the reverse is the case; the American tonnage has decreased to the amount of 206,527 tons, and the excess of foreign tonnage increased 198,277 tons, but in the aggregate the falling off in the slave States has been, 214,777 tons, or nearly one-fourth of her entire shipping list. By particularizing, we find, that in some of the Southern States, the falling off in the last year has been most remarkable. In Maryland, the decrease has been 23,000 tons; in the District of Columbia, 1,000 tons; Virginia, 4,000 tons; South Carolina, 22,000 tons; Georgia, 12,000 tons; Florida, 9,000 tons; Alabama, 36,000 tons; North Carolina, 14,000 tons, and Louisiana 118,000 tons. Texas is the only Southern State that has increased her tonnage the last year.

In the Northern States, only four States have experienced a decrease; these are, Vermont, Pennsylvania, Michigan and Illinois. In the whole of the free States, the aggregate increase in the past year has been 125,278 tons.

5.—TRADE AND COMMERCE ON OUR WESTERN WATERS.

The following, from the "Annual Discourse before the Historical Society of Ohio, by the President, WILLIAM D. GALLAGHER," showing the rapid progress of trade and commerce on our western waters, will be read with pride and pleasure by all who are watching the progress, and are solicitous for the prosperity of our great and happy country. The article reaches back into the past fifty years, and shows the astonishing growth of commerce in this section of our country, to the present time. But this is not all; it is suggestive of the future. The resources of the West are only just beginning to be developed. What, then, may be expected fifty years hence, if our commerce goes on increasing in the ratio indicated in this article, for fifty years to come?

"A few facts will exhibit, as well as a volume, the wonderful growth of Western trade and commerce. Previous to the year 1800, some eight or ten keelboats, of twenty to twenty-five tons each, performed all the carrying trade between Cincinnati and Pittsburgh. In 1802, the first government vessel appeared on Lake Erie. In 1811, the first steamboat (the Orleans) was launched at Pittsburgh. Previous to 1817, about twenty barges, averaging one hundred tons burden, comprised all the facilities for commercial transportation between New-Orleans and the country on the Ohio river as high up as Louisville and Cincinnati. Each of these boats made one trip down and back between these two places and New-Orleans each year. On the upper Ohio, from the falls to Pittsburgh, some one hundred and fifty keelboats were employed about 1815-'17. The average size of these was thirty tons, and they occupied from six to seven weeks in making the voyage both ways. In the year 1818, the first steamboat (the Walk-in-the-Water) was built on Lake Erie. In 1819, this boat appeared in trips on Lake Huron. In 1826, the waters of Michigan were first plowed by the keel of a steamboat, a pleasure trip to Green Bay being planned and executed in the summer of this year. In 1832, a steamboat first appeared at Chicago. In 1833, nearly the entire trade of the Upper Lakes—Erie, Huron, and Michigan—was carried on by eleven small steamers. So much for the beginning.

"In the year 1845, there were upon the Upper Lakes sixty vessels, including propellers, moved by steam, and three hundred and twenty sailing vessels—the former measuring twenty-three thousand tons in the aggregate, and some of the latter carrying one thousand to twelve hundred tons each. In 1846, according to official statements, exhibiting "the consolidated returns of both exports and imports," the moneyed value of the commerce of the harbors of Erie, was \$94,353,350: on Michigan, that of Chicago was \$3,927,150; total, \$98,285,500. One-half of this, it is supposed, would be a fair average of the net moneyed value of the commerce of these lakes for 1846, which gives \$49,142,750. The

average annual increase for the five years previous is shown by the same official documents to have been nearly eighteen per cent. Supposing it to have been but ten per cent. per annum for the four years since, will give \$68,799,850 as the present net money value of the commerce of Erie and Michigan. In the year 1834, the number of steamboats on the Mississippi and Ohio rivers, and their tributaries, was ascertained to be two hundred and thirty, with an aggregate carrying capacity equal to thirty-nine thousand tons. In 1842, the number of boats had increased to about four hundred and fifty, and their tonnage to upwards of one hundred thousand tons. At the present time, the entire number of steamboats running on the Mississippi and Ohio, and their tributaries, is more probably over than under six hundred, the aggregate tonnage of which is not short of one hundred and forty thousand tons; a larger number of steam-boats than England can claim, and a greater steam commercial marine than that employed by Great Britain and her dependencies. (See Congressional Reports, Hall's Statistics, McCulloch's Gazetteer, &c.) In 1846, Col. Abert, from reliable data, estimated the net value of the trade of the Western rivers at \$183,609,725 per year; in 1848, Judge Hall stated it at \$220,000,000, in his statistics; and the United States Senate have ordered a document to be printed which estimates it at \$256,233,820, for the year 1849! The same document puts the aggregate value of the vessels employed in this commerce, at \$18,661,500.

6.—NAVIGATION OF THE RIO GRANDE.

There are conflicting reports as to the possibility of navigating the Rio Bravo by steamers, as a part of the system of border defence. General BROOKES has directed Majors CHAPMAN and BABBIT to explore the river as thoroughly as the means allowed them by Government will permit, while Colonel JOHNSTON is investigating the land communication between the Upper Rio Grande and the Gulf. The result thus far is rather in favor of the land route, although the most discouraging of the river surveys makes steam navigation possible seven or eight hundred miles up, to Presidio Rio Grande, thirty miles below Fort Duncan. Others fix Eagle Pass, and even the Pecos, one hundred miles above, as the navigable head of the river. The existence of coal, iron, mica, and gypsum, in immense quantities, and particularly the latter, at the edge of the sterile country above the Pecos, is noticed on all hands. It is said that a plenty of ground gypsum (plaster of paris) is all that is required to convert the whole Rio Grande border into a rich clover field.

7.—TONNAGE OF THE UNITED STATES.

We extract from the Report of the Secretary of the Treasury the following statement of the tonnage of the vessels built in the United States during the past two years; also, the number of vessels built from 1815 to 1850, inclusive:

	1850.—Tons.	1840.—Tons.
Permanent registered.....	1,263,574	1,126,158
Temporary registered.....	323,155	312,882
Total registered.....	1,585,729	1,438,940
Permanent enrolled and licensed.....	1,879,514	1,794,970
Temporary enrolled and licensed.....	20,640	53,264
Enrolled and licensed.....	1,900,154	1,848,234
Total enrolled and licensed, including vessels under 20 tons.....	1,949,743	
Total tonnage of all kinds.....	3,535,434	3,334,015
There were engaged of this:—		
In Whale fishery.....	146,016 tons.	
In Cod fishery.....	85,646 "	
In Mackerel fishery.....	38,111 "	
In Coasting trade.....	1,755,796 "	
3,025,569 "		
Leaving for the foreign merchant service.....	609,885 "	

VESSELS BUILT IN THE UNITED STATES FROM 1815 TO 1850, INCLUSIVE.

Year.	Ships.	Brigs.	Scho.	Sips & C'l'd'ta.	Steamboats.	Total.	Tonnage.
1815.	136	224	680	274		1314	154,624.39
1816.	76	122	781	424		1403	131,688.04
1817.	4	86	559	394		1073	86,398.37
1818.	53	85	426	332		899	82,421.20
1819.	53	82	473	242		850	79,817.86
1820.	21	60	301	152		534	47,734.01
1821.	43	89	248	127		507	55,856.01
1822.	64	131	260	168	32	625	75,346.93
1823.	55	127	260	165	15	622	75,007.57
1824.	56	156	377	166	25	781	90,939.00
1825.	56	197	538	168	35	994	114,997.25
1826.	71	187	482	237	45	1012	126,438.35
1827.	58	133	464	244	38	934	104,342.67
1828.	73	108	474	196	33	884	98,375.58
1829.	44	68	485	145	43	785	77,098.65
1830.	25	56	403	116	37	637	58,094.24
1831.	73	95	416	94	34	711	85,962.68
1832.	132	143	568	192	100	1065	144,569.16
1833.	144	169	625	185	65	1188	164,626.36
1834.	98	94	497	180	68	937	118,330.37
1835.	25	50	302	100	30	507	46,238.52
1836.	93	65	444	164	124	890	113,637.49
1837.	67	72	507	168	135	949	122,987.22
1838.	66	79	501	153	90	898	113,135.44
1839.	83	89	439	122	125	858	120,986.34
1840.	97	109	378	224	64	872	118,309.23
1841.	114	101	312	157	78	760	118,893.71
1842.	116	91	273	404	137	1021	129,083.64
1843.	58	34	138	173	79	482	63,617.77
1844.	73	47	204	279	163	766	103,537.29
1845.	124	87	322	342	163	1038	146,018.02
1846.	100	164	576	355	235	1420	188,203.93
1847.	151	168	689	392	198	1598	243,732.67
1848.	234	174	701	547	175	1851	318,075.54
1849.	198	148	623	370	208	1547	256,577.47
1850.	247	117	547	290	159	1360	272,218.84

The above shows that, notwithstanding the immense number of vessels built since 1815, the tonnage for the past year has been greater than has been known before, except in 1848, when the Mexican war encouraged shippers and ship-builders to exceed their ordinary calculations. The same influence operated in 1815. The war of 1812 had prostrated business; but the instant peace was concluded, the exertions of the shipwright had to be redoubled, in order to meet the requirements of reviving commerce.

B.—STATISTICS OF ST. LOUIS.

ST. LOUIS.—The St. Louis *Republican* of the 1st inst. contains its annual review of the commerce of that city, and a variety of statistical tables, containing much valuable and interesting information, from which we condense the following particulars;

Population—free, 74,849: slave, 2,616; grand total, 77,465. Productive industry—capital invested, real and personal, \$3,853,351; persons employed, 7,929: annual product, \$13,908,577.

The population includes 23,774 natives of Germany, 11,257 of Ireland, 2,933 of England, and 2,450 of other countries, making an aggregate of 40,414 natives of foreign countries, leaving 37,051 for natives of the United-States. This is even a greater disparity between the native and the immigrant population, than we supposed existed. We can add, from the representations of the St. Louis press, and other reliable authorities, that the emigrant population of St. Louis constitutes one of the principal sources of its wealth and prosperity. They have added millions to the value of its real estate, immensely increased the aggregate of the annual returns of its productive industry, and created an important market for the productions of the soil, and the wares of the mechanic and the merchant.

We condense the following from its religious statistics :

Churches.	Number.	Seats.	Value.
Roman Catholic	12	10,862	534,300
Methodist	15	8,300	171,000
Presbyterian	8	5,700	200,000
Lutheran	5	3,300	44,500
Episcopal	5	2,750	136,000
Other Protestant	7	4,800	127,700

Grand total, 49 churches, containing 35,712 seats, and valued at \$1,213,500. The last division includes 2 Unitarian churches, with 2100 seats, valued at \$70,000 ; 2 Evangelical, with 600 seats, valued at \$4,700 ; 2 Baptist, with 1600 seats, valued at \$38,000 ; and 1 Boatmen's, with 500 seats, valued at \$15,000. In addition to these, there are 2 Synagogues, with 470 seats, one of which is rented, and the other valued at \$7,000. The Roman Catholic population is much more numerous than is indicated by the number of seats in the Roman Catholic churches, as a very large portion of that denomination worship in the aisles and vestibules, and an average of three several congregations assemble at each church, at the different hours of the several masses on Sunday morning.

The educational statistics of the city comprise 15 public schools with 2378 pupils ; 44 common schools with 2847 pupils ; 9 Roman Catholic schools (including two convents) with 1356 pupils ; 1 Roman Catholic College with 250 pupils ; and 2 Medical Colleges with 14 professors and 262 students. There are also a number of schools and seminaries in the county beyond the city limits, not included in the above.

The statistics in the *Republican* contain various other items of general interest, indicating an extraordinary degree of prosperity, and illustrating the steady progress of St. Louis in wealth, population, productive industry, education and religion.

9.—CURIOUS COTTON STATISTICS.

The enclosed condensed view of cotton culture, involves very valuable facts, which I was ignorant of when I was a young planter. Desiring to preserve them, I submitted them to the *Southern Cultivator*, in hopes of a careful perusal of the tables, if printed at all :

One hundred bolls are generally considered as equal to 1 lb. seed cotton, or 1-4 lb. lint, worth 3 cents. How much surface of a field—how many square feet of soil—required to grow 100 bolls ? Cotton planted in rows 3 feet by 1, is 3 square feet per stalk ; 4 by 1, 4 square feet : 4 by 2, 8 square feet ; 5 by 3, 15, &c. Poor land is planted close : rich land, wide—so as to have the plants just lock.

Dr. Cloud's Cotton.—The maximum of cotton culture yielded 5,989 lbs.—say 6,000 lbs. per acre. An acre has 43,560 square feet ; so his crop equals 13 3-4 bolls per square foot of soil. Cotton planted 3 feet by 1, averaging 3 bolls per stalk, is 1 boll per square foot ; and if a sure stand, is 435 lbs. per acre. The number of bolls per stalk is not a fair way to state the question, it is delusive. The true question in planting is, how many bolls per square foot ? Never mind the acres ; take care of the square feet, and the acres will take care of themselves.

One boll per square foot, is 435 lbs. per acre ; 3,915 lbs. seed cotton per hand, working 9 acres.

Two bolls per square foot, is 870 lbs. per acre ; 7,820 lbs. seed cotton per hand, working 9 acres.

Three bolls per square foot, is 1,345 lbs. per acre ; 11,745 lbs. seed cotton per hand, working 9 acres.

Four bolls per square foot, is 1,740 lbs. per acre ; 15,660 lbs. seed cotton per hand, working 9 acres.

Thirteen three-fourth bolls (Dr. Cloud's) per square foot, is 5,989 lbs. per acre ; 23,956 lbs. seed cotton per hand, at only 4 acres.

The extremes differ as 6 to 2. What room for manure and good seed !

Again: If cotton be worth 12 cents per lb., as now, then 100 bolls, making 1 lb. in seed, or 1-4 lb. lint, is worth 3 cents.

Then, at 1 boll per foot, a planter works 100 for 3 cents.

At 2 bolls per foot, a planter works 100 feet for 6 cents.

At 3 bolls per foot, a planter works 100 feet for 9 cents.

At 4 bolls per foot, a planter works 100 feet for 12 cents.

At 13 3-4 bolls per foot, (Dr. Cloud's,) a planter works 100 feet for 41 1-4 cents; nearly 1-3 cent for every square foot worked.

Again: A poor acre is as hard to work as a rich one. It is as hard to make one boll per square foot, as to make 3 or 4; and 3 acres per hand, at 3 bolls per foot, is just equal to 9 acres at 1 boll per foot. Five bales per hand (400 lb. bales) takes about 9 acres per hand, at 2 bolls per foot.

This is called good farming—very good; but it is only 12 1-2 lbs. per row across an acre of 3 feet cotton: equal to 12 1-2 lbs. seed cotton to 210 stalks, or about 17 stalks to 1 lb.

Again: 1 boll per foot, is about 33 stalks per lb. of seed cotton, or 132 stalks per lb. lint.—12 cents.

Two bolls per foot, is about 17 stalks per lb. of seed cotton, or 61 stalks per lb. lint.—12 cents.

Three bolls per foot, is about 11 stalks per lb. of seed cotton, or 44 stalks per lb. lint.—12 cents.

Four bolls per foot, is about 8 stalks per lb. of seed cotton, or 33 stalks per lb. lint.—12 cents.

Or, with cotton at 12 cents, and a crop of 1 boll per foot, a field of standing cotton is worth 1 cent for 11 stalks.

A crop of 2 bolls per foot, a field of standing cotton is worth 1 c. for 5½ stalks.

A crop of 3 bolls per foot, a field of standing cotton is worth 1 c. for 3½ stalks.

A crop of 4 bolls per foot, a field of standing cotton is worth 1 c. for 2½ stalks.

AGRESTIS.

10.—IMPORTATIONS OF SUGAR,

INTO THE UNITED STATES SINCE THE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE GOVERNMENT, INCLUSIVE OF THE FISCAL YEAR ENDING 30TH OF JUNE, 1850.

Years.	Quantity, lbs.	Years.	Quantity, lbs.	Value, Dollars.
1790.	22,719,457	1821.	59,512,835	3,553,583
1791.	21,919,066	1822.	88,305,670	5,034,489
1792.	22,499,588	1823.	60,789,210	3,258,689
1793.	37,291,988	1824.	94,379,764	5,165,800
1794.	33,645,772	1825.	71,771,479	4,237,530
1795.	37,582,547	1826.	84,902,955	5,311,631
1796.	25,403,581	1827.	76,701,629	4,577,361
1797.	49,767,745	1828.	56,983,951	3,546,786
1798.	33,206,395	1829.	63,307,294	3,622,406
1799.	57,079,636	1830.	86,483,046	4,630,342
1800.	30,537,637	1831.	109,014,654	4,910,877
1801.	47,882,876	1832.	66,451,288	2,933,688
1802.	39,443,814	1833.	97,688,132	4,753,343
1803.	51,066,934	1834.	115,389,855	5,537,829
1804.	55,670,013	1835.	126,036,230	6,806,174
1805.	68,046,865	1836.	191,426,115	12,514,504
1806.	73,318,649	1837.	136,139,839	7,202,668
1807.	65,810,816	1838.	153,879,143	7,586,360
1808.	84,853,633	1839.	195,231,273	9,919,502
1809.	12,381,320	1840.	120,939,585	5,580,950
1810.	29,312,307	1841.	184,264,881	8,807,708
1811.	55,332,914	1842.	173,863,585	6,503,434
1812.	60,166,082	1843.	71,335,131	2,532,279
1813.	31,364,276	1844.	186,804,578	7,195,700
1814.	20,670,168	1845.	115,664,840	4,780,555
1815.	54,737,763	1846.	198,028,875	5,448,257
1816.	35,347,963	1847.	2,697,834	275,503
1817.	65,591,302	1848.	257,129,743	9,479,317
1818.	51,284,983	1849.	259,326,584	3,049,739
1819.	71,665,401	1850.	218,425,348	7,555,146
1820.	51,537,888			

11.—STEAMSHIPS FROM NEW-ORLEANS TO ENGLAND.

It gives us pleasure to say, that in these times when the different Southern cities are entering into active rivalry with those of the North, in schemes of enterprise and improvement, there has been found in New-Orleans public spirit enough, at least, to propose a line of steamships to England, to be established by our own capitalists! This is indeed a huge movement in advance, and if, as we believe, after all, it is the destiny of the city to "die the same," it will be comfortable to know that "resolves" and "re-resolves" have never been wanting to her.

To William Mure, Esq., who was kind enough to send us the prospectus of the proposed enterprize, we express our thanks and warmest sympathies, and assure him that he not only will have the well wishes of the whole South in his favor, but that, if successful, his name will be that of a great public benefactor.

We have been disappointed so often in our sanguine expectations, that any lack of faith will be excusable, though we will admit Mr. Mure's statistics are of a kind that must satisfy even the most cautious. They are based upon the experience and investigation of business men, and will be of great value to our readers in all of the Southern cities, disposed at this time to extend their foreign commercial communications. Here they are:

PROSPECTUS FOR ESTABLISHING A LINE OF PROPELLER STEAMERS BETWEEN
LIVERPOOL AND NEW-ORLEANS.

It is proposed to establish a line of steamers to ply between the ports of New-Orleans and Liverpool, commencing with *two vessels* to be worked by screw propellers. The required capital, amounting to \$400,000 or \$450,000, to be raised by subscription, in shares of \$1,000 each, payable in equal instalments of 3, 6, 9, and 12 months. The vessels to be of the register burthen of about 1500 to 1600 tons, and to have extended accommodations for first and second class passengers, as well as capacity for large cargoes.

The principle of propulsion by screws is adopted for its economy and convenience. A vessel built on this plan, by the best workmen on the Clyde, similar to the "City of Glasgow," which has answered the expectations of its projectors, will only cost about one-third of the sum invested in the large steamers of the Cunard and Collins' lines. The working expenses, coal, &c., are also on a greatly reduced scale, while the capacity for goods and passengers is larger, owing to the great saving in the space occupied by the engines and coals.

The time is opportune, as the British West India steamers have been forced (from lack of time to visit so many points) to give up calling at Mobile Point or Havana, and a considerable number of passengers and goods could be had by touching at the latter point. It is also believed that the English Government will give the Havana mails to the first company putting on a direct line of steamers. Indeed, on the faith of this, it was lately proposed in England to place a steamer on the Havana and Liverpool station; but the trade between the two ports being thought insufficient, *of itself*, the project has been for the present abandoned.

Annexed will be found a schedule of the estimated income and expenditure, which, it will be noticed, shows a nett annual profit of \$92,616 for one steamer costing \$220,000, or 42 per cent; a very ample deduction for interest and depreciation, say 25 per cent, having been made from the gross earnings.

It is certain, from the character of the cotton trade between this port and Liverpool, that a vessel which could be relied on to arrive within a certain time, would always command a preference from shippers, at a higher rate than current for sailing vessels. At the present time, a difference of $\frac{1}{2}$ to $\frac{1}{4}$ d would readily be paid, so that $\frac{1}{2}$ per lb. might be fairly calculated upon as a very moderate freight.

Estimate of Receipts, Expenses, and Profits, also depreciation, of a Steamer upon the Proprietary principle, of about 1500 to 1600 tons, capable of carrying 3200 bales of Cotton, and on her return voyage 850 tons of Measurement Goods and 500 tons of dead weight, to run between New-Orleans and Liverpool, touching at Havana—

RECEIPTS OR INCOME.

3,200 bales of Cotton at 1-2d. per lb.....	£ 3,200
100 Cabin Passengers, at £30 each.....	3,000
100 Second Cabin Passengers, at £15 each.....	1,500
Small parcels, mails from Havana, not calculated.....	

£ 7,700

Income of four outward trips from New-Orleans.....	£30,800
--	---------

FROM INWARD TRIPS.

850 tons measurement Goods, at £3 per ton (low rate).....	2,550
500 tons dead weight, at £1.....	500
100 Cabin Passengers, at £30.....	3,000
100 Second Cabin Passengers, at £15.....	1,500

7,550

Income of four inward trips.....	£30,300
----------------------------------	---------

Income of one boat.....	£61,000
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But deduct one-third from that derived from passengers for reduced numbers, 12,000
Income of one Steamer, independent of mails, small packages, and expenses, £49,000
The "City of Glasgow" charges £4 per ton to New-York, and the Importers
here would prefer a direct line, instead of paying a high freight and then
reshipping from New-York.

EXPENSES IN DOLLARS.

Wages for Captain, per month.....	200
" Mate, \$50; 2d, \$40; 3d, \$30.....	120
" 1st Engineer, \$100; 2d, \$60.....	160
" 3d Engineer, \$50; Assistant, \$40.....	90
" 6 Firemen, \$150; 2 lampmen, \$40.....	190
" 2 Boys, \$16; 2 Apprentices, \$16.....	32
" 12 Seamen, \$15 per month.....	180
" 4 Apprentices.....	28
" 1 Carpenter and Mate.....	30
" 8 Waiters, \$120; 1 Chambermaid, \$12.....	132
" 1 Steward, \$40; 2d Steward, \$30.....	70
" Stewardess, \$25; 3 Cooks, \$15.....	100
Victualling per month 53 hands.....	530

\$ 1,862

250

\$ 2,112

Or for 12 months, and no deduction is made for the time the vessel is in port for seamen's wages.....	\$ 25,344
Coal, 300 to 400 tons, say 350 tons for 8 voyages—2,800 tons—or rather calculate 3,000 tons, at \$5.....	15,000
(The Coal can be bought in Liverpool at 12s. stg., and \$6 to \$7 here.)	
Victualling 100 Cabin Passengers per trip, at \$20—8 voyages.....	16,000
100 Second Cabin, at \$10.....	8,000
Wharfage and Pilotage per trip, and Dock dues in Liverpool, 17c. per ton per day, 14 days in port.....	\$250
8 voyages.....	2,000
Discharging cargo in Liverpool.....	\$500
4 Voyages.....	2,000
Extra labor in discharging cargo at New-Orleans.....	\$250
Compressing and Stevedores' Wages on 3,200 bales—80c. per bale.....	\$2,560
4 inward loadings.....	10,940
Commission 2½ per cent. on collecting freight and passage money.....	6,000
Commission 2½, Disbursements in New-Orleans and Liverpool.....	2,000

\$ 87,584

55,000

\$ 142,584

Income as above £49,000, or in dollars..... 335,200

Deduct—

Leaving a profit of \$92,616, or 42 per ct. on \$220,000 to be divided among the subscribers.

In the above estimate, the victualling is calculated for 100 first and second Cabin Passengers, whereas the Income is calculated upon 2-3ds of that number.

Allow 23 days passage out, and
27 days for passage inwards, } which will be the maximum.
14 lay days in each port—
14—would be

—
78 days; 4 trips, 312 days—leaving 53 days to lay up for repairs, &c.

AGRICULTURAL DEPARTMENT.

1.—MANAGEMENT OF NEGROES.

As the proper management of our negroes is a subject not second in importance to any discussed in your columns, I hope it will not be deemed amiss if, in giving my views, I enter somewhat into detail. That on some points I shall be found to differ in opinion from some of your readers and correspondents, is to be expected. I shall not, however, object to any one's expressing his dissent, provided it be done in the spirit of kindness.

Our first obligation is undoubtedly to provide them with suitable food and clothing. Here the question arises: What is sufficient food? For as there is a difference in practice, there must be also in opinion among owners. The most common practice is to allow each hand that labors, whether man, woman or child (for a boy or girl ten years old or over, who is healthy, and growing rapidly, will eat quite as much as a full grown man or woman), three and a half pounds bacon, if middling, or four pounds if shoulder, per week, and bread at will; or if allowance in this also, a peck of meals is usually thought sufficient. With plenty of vegetables, this allowance is quite sufficient; but if confined to meat and bread, negroes who work hard will eat a peck and a half of meal per week.

As I live on my farm and occasionally inspect the cooking for the negroes, I see that they have enough, but nothing to waste; and I speak from personal observation, when I state that without vegetables they will eat this quantity.

With very little trouble we can always, during spring and summer, have plenty of cabbage, kale or mustard for greens, also squashes, Irish potatoes and beans. In fall and winter sweet potatoes, turnips, pumpkins and peas. I believe there is no labor devoted to a provision crop, that pays equal to that bestowed on a plain kitchen garden. As there is no vegetable of which negroes are more fond than of the common field pea, it is well to save enough of them in the fall to have them frequently during the spring and summer. They are very nutritious; and if cooked perfectly done, and well seasoned with red pepper, are quite healthy. If occasionally a little molasses be added to the allowance, the cost will be but a trifle, while the negro will esteem it as a great luxury. As most persons feel a great reluctance at paying out money for little luxuries for negroes, I would suggest the propriety of sowing a small patch of wheat for their benefit. The time and labor will never be missed. Many persons are in the habit of giving out the allowance to their negroes once a week, and requiring them to do their own cooking. This plan is objectionable on various accounts. Unless better provided for taking care of their provisions than is common among negroes, some will steal the meat from others, and the loser is compelled for the remainder of the week to live on bread, or the master must give him an additional allowance. The master cannot expect full work from one who is but partially fed; while on the other hand, if he will give the loser an additional supply, the negroes soon learn to impose upon his kindness, by being intentionally careless, or by trading off their meat and pretending it has been stolen. Another objection is that some are improvident, and will get through with their whole allowance of meat before the week is gone, and consequently are a part of their time without any.

To make the negroes do their own cooking, the objections are still more weighty. It encroaches upon the rest they should have both at noon and at night. The cooking being done in a hurry, is badly done ; being usually burnt outside while it is raw within ; and consequently unhealthy. However abundant may be the supply of vegetables, the hands have no time to cook them, and consequently are badly fed, and have not the strength to do as much labor as they could otherwise perform with comfort.

The plan pursued by the writer is, to weigh out a certain amount of meat for each day : a portion of which is given to the cook every morning, to be boiled for dinner, and with it are cooked as many vegetables and as much bread as the negroes will eat ; all of which is usually divided among them by the foreman. In the evening enough is cooked for both supper and breakfast ; so that by the time we are done feeding stock, supper is ready, and the hands have only to eat and they are ready for bed. When the nights are long, the meat for supper and breakfast is sometimes divided without cooking. In addition to the above, the negroes, during spring and summer, usually get plenty of milk once a day. During the fall and winter the quantity of milk is more limited, and what molasses they get, they are made to win by picking cotton.

To make one negro cook for all is a saving of time. If there be but ten hands, and these are allowed two hours at noon, one of which is employed in cooking their dinner, for all purposes of rest that hour had as well be spent in ploughing or hoeing ; and would be equal to ten hours work of one hand ; whereas, the fourth of that time would be sufficient for one to cook for all. As there are usually a number of children to be taken care of, the cook can attend to these, and see that the nurses do their duty. I would add, that besides occasional personal inspection, it is made obligatory on the overseer, frequently to examine the cooking, and see that it is properly done.

One of your correspondents has endeavored to prove that lean meat is more nutritious than fat. It is, however, a well known fact, that the more exhausting the labor the fatter the meat which the negro's appetite craves, and it agrees well with him. This I regard as one of the instincts of nature ; and think experience is opposed to your correspondent's theory.

As to clothing, less than three suits a year of every-day clothes will not keep a negro decent, and many of them require more. Children, particularly boys, are worse than grown persons on their clothes, and consequently require more of them. I have never been able to keep a boy, from ten to sixteen years of age, decently clothed with less than four suits a year ; nor would that answer, if some of the women were not compelled to do their mending. It is also important that women who work out should, in addition to their usual clothing, have a change of drawers for winter.

As no article of water-proof, suitable for an outer garment, and sufficiently cheap for plantation use, is to be had in the stores, the writer would suggest the propriety of having for each hand, a long apron with sleeves, made of cotton osnaburgh, and coated with well boiled linseed oil. In the fall, when picking cotton, this apron may be worn early in the morning until the dew dries off, then laid aside. By making it sufficiently loose across the breast, it can be used as an overcoat at any time that the negro is necessarily exposed to rain.

Patching may be done by the women on wet days when they are compelled to be in the house. Or when a breeding woman gets too heavy to go to the field, she may be made to do a general patching for all the hands.

In furnishing negroes with bed clothes, it is folly to buy the common blankets, such as sell for \$1 or \$1 25. They have but little warmth or durability. One that will cost double the money will do more than four times the service.

Besides whole clothes, negroes should have clean clothes ; and in order to do this, they should have a little time allowed them to do their washing. As it is not convenient for all hands to wash at the same time, they may be divided into companies, and a certain evening assigned to each company. Those whose time it is to wash should be let off from the field earlier than the rest of the hands, and on that night should be free from all attention to feeding stock. The rule works equal : for those who have to do extra feeding on one night are in their turn exempt. It should, however, be an invariable rule not to allow any

of them to wash on Saturday night, for they will be dirty on the Sabbath, and render as an excuse that their clothes are wet. On some large plantations it is the daily business of one hand to wash and mend for the rest.

In building houses for negroes, it is important to set them well up, (say two and a half or three feet from the ground to the sills,) so as to be conveniently swept underneath. When thus elevated, if there should be any filth under them, the master or overseer, in passing, can see it, and have it removed. The houses should be neat and comfortable; and as far as circumstances will allow, it looks best to have them of uniform size and appearance; 16 by 18 feet is a convenient size for a small family. If there be many children in a family, a larger house will be necessary.

Many persons, in building negro houses, in order to get clay convenient for filling the hearth, and for mortar, dig a hole under the floor. As such excavations uniformly become a common receptacle for filth, which generates disease, they should by no means be allowed. In soils where the clay will make brick, the saving of fuel, and the greater security against fire, render it a matter of economy to build brick chimneys. In all cases the chimneys should be extended fully two feet above the roof, that there may be less danger in discharging sparks. They are also less liable to smoke. In consequence of negro houses being but one story high, the lowness of the chimneys renders them very liable to smoke from currents of wind driving down the flue. This may be effectually prevented by the following simple precaution: Around the top of the chimney throw out a base some eight or ten inches wide, and from the outer edge of this draw in the cap at an angle of thirty-five or forty degrees with the horizon, until true with the flue. No matter in what direction the wind blows, on striking this inclined plane the current will glance upwards and pass the chimney, without the possibility of blowing down it. On page 454 of Reports of Commissioner of Patents for 1844, will be found plates illustrative of my meaning, which Dr. Lee will please copy in the *Cultivator*, with the necessary explanation. The wings of the angles, as explained in reports, are, however, unnecessary, as the remedy is effectual without them, though they evidently increase the draft. A coat of whitewash inside and out, every summer, adds very much to the neat and comfortable appearance of the buildings, and is also, by its cleansing and purifying effect, conducive to health. The cost is almost nothing, as one barrel of good lime will whitewash a dozen common sized negro houses, and any negro can put it on.

If there be not natural shades sufficient to keep the houses comfortable, a row of mulberries, or such other shades as may suit the owner's fancy, should by all means be planted in front, and so as to protect the houses on the south and southwest.

The negroes should be required to keep their houses and yards clean; and in case of neglect, should receive such punishment as will be likely to insure more cleanly habits in future.

In no case should two families be allowed to occupy the same house. The crowding a number into one house is unhealthy. It breeds contention; is destructive of delicacy of feeling, and it promotes immorality between the sexes.

In addition to their dwellings, where there are a number of negroes, they should be provided with a suitable number of properly located water closets. These may contribute an income much greater than their cost, by enabling the owner to prepare poudrette: while they serve the much more important purpose of cultivating feelings of delicacy.

There should at all times be plenty of wood hauled. Surely no man of any pretensions to humanity, would require a negro, after having done a heavy day's work, to toil for a quarter or a half mile under a load of wood before he can have fire. An economical way of supplying them with wood is to haul logs instead of small wood. This may be most conveniently done with a cart and a pair of hooks, such as are used for hauling stocks to a saw-mill. Such hooks will often come in use, and the greater convenience and expedition of hooks instead of a chain, will soon save more time than will pay for them.

The master should never establish any regulation among his slaves until he is fully convinced of its propriety and equity. Being thus convinced, and having issued his orders, implicit obedience should be required and rigidly enforced. Firmness of manner and promptness to enforce obedience, will save much trouble, and be the means of avoiding the necessity for much whipping. The negro should feel that his master is his law-giver and judge, and yet is his protector and friend, but so far above him, as never to be approached save in the most respectful manner. This is where he has just cause, he may with due deference approach his master and lay before him his troubles and complaints ; but not on false pretexts or trivial occasions. If the master be a tyrant, his negroes may be so much embarrassed by his presence as to be incapable of doing their work properly when he is near.

It is expected that servants should rise early enough to be at work by the time it is light. In sections of country that are sickly, it will be found conducive to health, in the fall, to make the hands eat their breakfast before going into the dew. In winter, as the days are short and nights long, it will be no encroachment upon their necessary rest to make them eat breakfast before daylight. One properly taken care of, and supplied with good tools, is certainly able to do more work than under other circumstances. While at work, they should be brisk. If one is called to you, or sent from you, and he does not move briskly, chastise him at once. If this does not answer, repeat the dose and double the quantity. When at work, I have no objection to their whistling or singing some lively tune, but no drawling tunes are allowed in the field, for their motions are almost certain to keep time with the music.

In winter, a hand may be pressed all day, but not so in summer. In the first of the spring, a hand need not be allowed any more time at noon than is sufficient to eat. As the days get longer and warmer, a longer rest is necessary. In May, from one and a half to two hours ; in June, two and a half ; in July and August, three hours rest at noon. If the day is unusually sultry, a longer time is better. When the weather is oppressive, it is best for all hands to take a nap at noon. It is refreshing, and they are better able to stand pressing the balance of the day. Hands by being kept out of the sun during the hottest of the day, have better health, and can do more work through the season than those who take what they call a good steady gait, and work regularly from morning till night. They will certainly last much longer.

If the corn for feeding is in the shuck, the husking should be done at noon ; and all corn for milling should, during summer, be shelled at noon, that as the nights are short, the hands may be ready for bed at an early hour.

If water be not convenient in the field where the hands are at work, instead of having it brought from a distance in buckets, it will be found more convenient to have a barrel fixed on wheels and carried full of water to some convenient place, and let a small boy or girl with a bucket supply the hands from the barrel. Some persons make each negro carry a jug or large gourd full of water to the field every morning, and this has to serve for the day.

During the fall and winter, hands may be made to pack at night what cotton has been ginned in the day. The women may be required to spin what little roping will be necessary for plough lines, and to make some heavy bed-quilts for themselves. Besides this, there is very little that can properly be done of nights.

One of the most important regulations on a farm is to see that the hands get plenty of sleep. They are thoughtless, and if allowed to do so, will sit up late of nights. Some of them will be up at all hours ; and others, instead of going to bed, will sit on a stool or chair and nod or sleep till morning. By half-past 9 or 10 o'clock, all hands should be in bed ; and unless in case of sickness, or where a woman has been up with her child, if any one is caught out of bed after that hour, they should be punished.

2.—NATURE AND DESTINY OF THE NEGRO.

We are indebted to our friend, Dr. J. C. Nott, of Mobile, for a copy of his most interesting and instructive Address, delivered before the Southern Rights' Association of that city, on the "Natural History of Man in Connection with Negro Slavery." We extract several pages from this Address, but before doing so, will express our concurrence in the answer which Dr. Nott makes to those who are ever crying "peace," "peace," and "compromise for peace."—The Constitution itself, the Missouri line, etc. etc., were all compromises between the North and the South, and *how have their compromises been respected?*

Here we are in the year 1850, the owners of three millions of Negro Slaves, and *without any agency of ours*; the mother country and the original colonies bequeathed them to us. When the Constitution was formed, this institution was recognized, and Slave States entered the Confederacy as equals, with Constitutional guarantees for their property, and would have formed the copartnership on no other terms. All experience proves that the Negroes cannot be emancipated without bringing want, misery and barbarism upon them. It is clear, too, that these Negroes cannot be liberated without destroying the prosperity, happiness and political power of the Southern States; and yet we are scoffed at and insulted, as outside barbarians, for perpetuating this institution, though no one has ever proposed a scheme by which these slaves can be emancipated, with safety to the whites, and with benefit to them. Such conduct is unjust—is insulting, and not to be tolerated by men worthy of liberty.

Few persons realize the fact taught by history, that it is infinitely more difficult to *destroy*, or alter, great political or social institutions, than to *create* them.

The time of deliverance for the negro slaves, if a better destiny awaits them, has not yet come; nor will the Lord call forth a Moses from the ranks of the Seward and George Thompsons. His chosen people were afflicted with much longer and more cruel bondage than have been our blacks, and had to abide the fullness of time.

Let us, on the other hand, take a glance at the history of African Races. The population of that continent is estimated at a little short of one hundred millions, of which, fifty-five millions are negro races; and yet, except in the Barbary States, Egypt, Abyssinia, Nubia, &c., which are populated by other races, not a monument, nor record, nor even a tradition exists, to mark the birth or death of civilization. This whole continent, south of the great Desert of Sahara, is a perfect blank in the world's history. The negro race were in close commercial intimacy with ancient Egypt and Carthage, in their palmiest days; they have continued their intercourse with Egypt and the Barbary States, down to the present day; they have had missionaries sent to them for centuries, and colonies established among them: in short, they have had every facility and every temptation held out which a people could ask, and still the first step towards civilization is not made. No negro race has ever yet invented an alphabet, however rude, or possessed the semblance of literature. What does all this mean? Can any rational being believe that any time or efforts can civilize a people embracing so many millions, and who have resisted all external impulses for more than two thousand years?

A capital error—which has been received without reflection, or investigation, and which has misled many of the most enlightened and zealous philanthropists of the past and present—is the idea that cultivation, through a series of generations, can expand the defective brains, develop the intellectual faculties of the negro races, and thus raise them *by degrees* to the full standard of excellence which belongs to the Caucasian races: that they can, in a word, be fully civilized, and fitted for self-government, in its highest and most complicated forms;—that a black King, Lords and Commons, could wield the mighty machinery of the British Empire! A greater delusion never entered the mind of a sane man; and how it ever got into vogue, with all history, all science, and all common sense against it, would be difficult to divine. Absurd religious opinions alone can explain.

Some of the aboriginal tribes of America, as the Toltecans, while isolated from all external aids, have achieved a semi-civilization. The Mongols, Hindus, &c., under similar circumstances, have gone a step farther; but the Negroes, when left to themselves, have risen but little above the beasts of the field. No pure-blooded negro has ever risen above the grade of mediocrity in the whites. The notorious Toussaint Louverture, of Hayti, is the most remarkable negro in history; and though showing extraordinary powers, for a negro, would have left no name as a white man, and was a brute in morals. He was unquestionably dark, but I have not been able to get any accurate information about his pedigree and precise race.

If, then, the negro races stand at the lowest point in the scale of human beings, and we know of no moral or physical agencies which can redeem them from their degradation, it is clear that they are incapable of self-government, and that any attempt to improve their condition is warring against an immutable law of nature.

This brings us to the great practical questions, what is to be the fate of the three millions of negro slaves now in our Southern States? And what is to be our destiny, which is indissolubly linked with theirs? Here we have stood with our arms folded year after year, suffering aggression after aggression from the North, till the cordon is now drawn around us: and looking calmly at the growth of evils which are long must inevitably end in bloodshed. There are appalling issues before us which must be met, and the results of which no human wisdom can foretell. The slaves double by natural increase every thirty years, and this ratio would give us fifty millions, in little more than a century; —a rapidity of increase which no scheme of philanthropy ever yet proposed by emancipationists could keep pace with. The Northern Abolitionists are acting under the influence of ignorance and fanaticism, and there may, therefore, be some palliation for their offences; but for us at the South, who are familiar with the black races, and know how impracticable all proposed schemes of emancipation are, there can be no excuse for our supineness. We could not educate the millions of slaves amongst us, for they would be unfit for slavery, and dangerous to us, while they would still be unfit for liberty: and admitting that cultivation could improve their intelligence, a century would be but a beginning in the work of regeneration. Many centuries would elapse, admitting its possibility, before the work could be completed; and it is expecting too much of human nature, to suppose that one race will sacrifice itself during so many generations, for the sole benefit of another.

Well, suppose the slaves to be educated as far as practicable, and prepared for emancipation, what then could be done with them? The free states are passing laws everywhere to protect themselves against the influx of free negroes, and very soon the barrier around us will be complete. It is clear, that the three millions of slaves now at the South, could not be turned loose upon us. Would a single man in Alabama vote to turn loose the three hundred thousand negroes within her borders, upon any terms which could be proposed?

It is evident, then, that if the negroes in the Slave States are permitted to exist at all on this continent, it can be no where but in *Slave States*, and no where but in *slavery*, with all their fearful increase. Can any one deny this assertion? The number which would escape to free states, would be too small to affect materially the result, and the time is fast approaching when *all* free states will pass prohibitory laws against this population; for they know, as well as we do, that a large free negro population—which is an indolent, improvident, vicious, non-producing class—could not be tolerated. It is, therefore, evident, that we should have to provide for the evil at home, however incurable, or look to Liberia as a safety-valve.

It has been seriously suggested by some, and by Sir Charles Lyell, amongst others, that the negroes should be gradually educated and emancipated at home, and allowed to amalgamate with the whites; and thus be absorbed and become a part of our flesh and bone, and a part of our civilization. This proposition is not only insulting and revolting to us, but is overruled by other objections. There is no doubt that the intellectual grade of the negro races may be greatly improved by crossing them with the whites; but it must not be forgotten, on the

other hand, that the white races would be *dragged down* by the adulteration, and their civilization destroyed. We see now how difficult it is for the purest races of the earth to maintain anything like rational governments; and what would become of our institutions, in the hands of mulattoes? A great aim of philanthropy should be, to keep the ruling races of the world as pure and as wise as possible, for it is only through them that the others can be made prosperous and happy. Look at Hayti, where the mulatto caste governed feebly for a time: their movement was constantly retrograde, until finally, dragged down by the pure blacks, they were exterminated, or driven away. That beautiful island is now plunged into a perfectly savage state, and I am credibly informed by an eye-witness, that he, on two occasions, saw the negroes roasting and eating Dominican prisoners on the road side!

It being certain, then, (accumulating with the rapidity we have stated) that the slaves of the Southern States *must have* an outlet at no very distant day, in some direction—let us revert to the proposed colonization in Africa. This is a scheme which has occupied the serious attention, and met with the full approval, of all the leading men of the North, and not a few of those at the South; and though fully convinced of its impracticability, I shall be glad to see the experiment now making with the free negroes fairly carried out, as I am convinced it will serve to prove the correctness of the views I have advanced.

It is utterly inconceivable to my mind, how so many men of intelligence could be led to favor a scheme so impracticable, with the history of the two races open before them. There Africa stands with her fifty millions of blacks, and there she has stood for the last five thousand years, with this people occupying the same countries, without one step towards civilization; and all the experiments in the United States, the West Indies, &c., have failed. The boon has been presented to them in every possible shape, and they have never been able to grasp it. Is not the delusion the more extraordinary, when we see sensible men in this country and Europe fostering, with confident hopes, the Republic of Liberia—while they laugh at the absurdity of the French nation, one of the most intellectual in the world, in attempting to make a republican, or any other rational form of government?

It is far from my feelings, or design, to misrepresent the facts connected with this scheme of colonization, for it has been approved by many of the wisest and best men of our country; but still I fear we have been grossly deceived, not only by bad, but by well-meaning men, at home, as well as in Africa. Letters and statements are published from Liberia; speeches are made before the Colonization Society in Washington, and published in the National Intelligencer, giving the most poetic accounts of the intelligence, morality and refinement of the black colonists, and the rapid progress of civilization in Liberia. I have good reason to believe that these statements are utterly untrue, and a moment's reflection would bring any thinking man to the same conclusion. Can any one believe that such a change would come over four or five thousand ignorant, stupid, and for the most part, vicious free negroes, in a few years? "The first settlement was made by free negroes from the United States, under the auspices of the American Colonization Society, in the year 1820," and this class *there*, is the same as we see it around us *here*, every day; and we know full well the nature of the material on which these mighty changes are to be wrought. Some of them have made their way back to the United States in disgust, and contradict the statements given. A lamented friend, who died in Mobile a few years ago, (Dr. Mechlin,) and who lived in Liberia five years—a part of which time he was Governor of that Colony—told me that he regarded the experiment as a failure, and that he saw no hope of ever rendering the negro race fit for self-government; and no one who knew this gentleman ever doubted his honesty or intelligence.

The Colony, so far, has only been held together by the fostering care of the Colonization Society, and support of foreign governments. It is governed too directly by the white agents of the Society, and by the white blood coursing through the veins of the mulatto leaders amongst the colonists. President Roberts, who was once a blacksmith in Petersburg, Virginia, I am informed by those who knew him well, is three-fourths white blood, with florid complexion.

red hair, and disagreeable expression of countenance. He is represented as "a keen, shrewd, designing fellow, who is turning matters in Liberia to his own account." Most of the other leading men are also mulattoes. The colonists have had many difficulties to contend with, but if the history of races teaches anything, the delusion will probably not last much longer.

Slavery is already virtually abolished in the District of Columbia. In consequence of the incessant agitation in Congress, and the growth of the Abolition party, this species of property has become insecure—and the slave-owners, from prudential motives, have been ridding themselves of their slaves, who are now reduced to but a handful. Even in Baltimore, by the census of 1840, out of twenty thousand negroes, there were but three thousand slaves, and this drain is going on in all the frontier Slave States, while the slaves are emptied into the Gulf States. Few realize the rapidity with which this process is going on. In Alabama, there were in 1820 but forty-one thousand slaves; in 1830, they had increased to one hundred and seventeen thousand; in 1840, the number had reached two hundred and fifty-three thousand! and it remains to see what the census of 1850 will show. How long will it be before Alabama must pass and enforce laws against the farther introduction of slaves? The slaves double in thirty years, by natural increase, and with the immigration, our children will see around them in this short period, at least one million. All the Cotton and Sugar States will be in the same crowded condition, and each will be passing laws for its own protection. Kentucky is already agitating the question of Abolition within her own borders, and it requires no prophet's eye to see that emancipation is inevitable in all the farming states, where white labor can be advantageously used.

These reflections afford ample field for sober consideration. What disposition God, in his providence, will eventually make of these blacks, cannot be foretold; but it is our duty to provide for our own happiness and theirs, as long as we can. In dealing with this question, it will not do to be guided by abstract notions of liberty and slavery. We can only judge the future by the past; and as experience proves that the negro is better off in slavery at the South, than in freedom elsewhere, it is the part of philanthropy to keep him here, as we keep our children in subjection for their own good.

3.—NEGRO CIVILIZATION IN FREEDOM.

General Brisbane, of South Carolina, has written a series of letters to Bishop Hughes, who, it will be remembered, preached, not long since, a sermon in New-York on slavery. We have only space for one of these letters.

[FIFTH LETTER.]

*Most Reverend Sir:—*I promised, in my last letter, to be more practical on the subject of religious interference with the question of African slavery. It is within my immediate knowledge that the head of the Catholic Church took the subject into deep consideration, but in a different point of view from that in which I now submit it. Bishop England, of the Diocese of Charleston, was intrusted with the reclamation of the island of St. Domingo—an island which had once been thoroughly enlightened by the truths of the Gospel. For three successive missions did he exert the utmost of his power, and that power, no one is more fully advised of than yourself, and what was the result? He retired from the contest, hopeless of any result, and left the field open to any other agent, whom his Holiness might obtain to prosecute the object. Bishop Rosati, a Frenchman, and therefore supposed better fitted to the task, was next sent; and you are equally advised of the cause of his failure; the Hamite, unless under servitude to the Japhetian, would not listen to him on the subject of the supernatural providence of God to the human family. It is confidently believed that the distinguished French Bishop died of exhaustion occasioned by his mission. I am credibly informed that the Pope of Rome has made no further attempts to impress upon the Hamite of St. Domingo, a belief in his Noetic fraternity with Shem and Japhet, but has actually left him alone in his nakedness. The same inability will soon extend to the rest of the West India islands, and it will be through the annexation of Cuba to the States of the

American Confederacy, which will alone sustain the Japhetism in the servitude of the Hamite, that we can hope for the preservation of the Christian religion among the vast tribe of Africans who are now engaged upon its soil. Unless the head of the Catholic Church shall take the view that we do of this important subject, what shall prevent an intestine commotion in Spain, like that recently experienced in France, from liberating the Hamite from servitude on that noble island, thereby destroying his hope of Christian enlightenment, through the instrumentality of his Noatic brothers. The same state of things exist on the part of the Church, with the entire country of Africa. Should the recent discoveries on that continent prove true, and the soil be opened to Japhetic cultivation, then, and only then, will the Hamite have his civilization secured to him; for then will he be made subject to his brother, and his brother's employment of him, enlighten him. How idle, on this subject, have proved the efforts of those, who have endeavored by African recolonization to civilize Africa. Far short of the truth has been their reading of a prophecy which, as long as the rainbow shall span the heavens, will be indicative of the triune nature of the human family. When African discoveries shall prove, that the elevation of the mountains of the moon are found to qualify the climate of the torrid zone in which they lie—to qualify it so as to admit the occupation of the Japhetian race, then, and not until then, will it be rational—be religious to plant African colonies upon the African coast with a view to its civilization. In other words, when the Japhetian can carry his African slave there to labor on its soil, may the church hope to christianize it. On this subject I have another point to settle. There are many who think that the mission of the Hamite of this confederacy even, is to pass away to the torrid zone of South America—to follow the bent of his peculiar nature, as he did on the old continent, immediately after the dispersion of the race—occupying that zone in its entire length and breadth, even to its limits by the Pacific on the continent of Asia. But how idle this supposition. Even were our christian interest in Ham to allow us to permit him to fall away from God, by falling away from Japhetian servitude, what hope could we entertain of his prospects on that portion of South America. Already does the Japhetian occupy the soil—already does he import into that country from Africa eighty thousand Hamites annually to work his Brazilian mines for him—already has the church dispensed its blessings, through the servitude of the Canaanite, to the children of Ham within the torrid zone of South America. I ask you, Most Reverend Sir, would the church, if it could, relinquish the hold it now has upon the African of South America, to take that, of which we have spoken, on the African of St. Domingo or the African of Africa itself? The memory of the great England, at least, cries out, no!—no!—we must not allow the Hamite to follow the bent of his vile nature; his servitude is the means established by Almighty God to prevent him; and it is the christian duty of his brothers to impose it.

Yours, faithfully in Christ,

A. H. BRISBANE.

4.—NEGRO SLAVERY.

Mr. STIMSON, one of the Editors of the New-York Day Book, who is now travelling through the Southern States to make himself acquainted with the true character of black slavery, writes home the following very sensible view of the operation of the institution. It is a common sense view, taken by a practical man, and is well worth reading:

"I have learned one fact, which I have never seen stated, in regard to the employment of slaves. Most of the people who *work* the slaves, hire them of their masters, and pay him their wages, which averages, in this State, for men, about \$100 a year, and for women, about \$60. The practical operation of this, you will see, is very similar to Mr. Greeley's *Fourierism*, only that it is a great deal better. A farm is a phalanx on which, or in which, all the labor is put, or if not large to put it profitably, the robust and hardy, the youngest and strongest, are sent out to find labor elsewhere. The product of this labor is all brought home to our garner, and the white man or master is only secretary or guard to watch over and protect the property, and deal it out to the different members

of the society or *series*, as their circumstances require. The members of their "Roman" have made a contract with the secretary, and have agreed to give him all the surplus of each year's products, on condition that he shall make up the deficiencies in years of sickness and famine. In this section, "he has the worst end of the bargain, but in other places, the members bring in enough every year to support the whole "society." It is not a bad sight to see the young and hardy men and women go out and labor cheerfully all day, and come home at night and put their wages into the hands of one *pledged* to take care of their aged parents and their younger brothers and sisters, and in case of sickness and misfortune, themselves. I doubt much if there is an Abolitionist in the land who would pledge himself and his property to take care of any laborer's family, through all the various changes of life, for the wages he gets. If the corporation of the city of New-York would take the earnings of ten thousand of the poorest of its population, and provide for them comfortable houses and plenty of good and wholesome food, would it not be doing them a charity? Would tax-payers consent to such arrangement? I think not. Then let them not complain of the domestic arrangements of Southern cities and Southern society."

5.—HANDLING OF COTTON.

Mr. Editor,—I noticed an article in the *Eagle* a short time since, on the handling and general management of cotton, in its preparation for market; and as this whole subject is a matter of much greater moment than most planters seem to be aware of, judging from the careless manner in which it is not unfrequently sent forward to market, I desire to correct what I consider a *very great error* in the *management* recommended by the writer of the article alluded to. His recommendation is, not to sun cotton after it is gathered, but house it, with moisture enough, if possible, to produce fermentation or heat, in order to extract the oil from the seed, which the writer supposes will be absorbed by the staple, rendering it at once most beautiful in color and desirable in quality. From the well-known chemical agency of heat, we deem the caution of the writer most pertinent, "do not let this heating process go too far—stop at the right point and cool,"—why? because the staple will be endangered. "The right point," I presume, is somewhere short of the destruction of the staple, but precisely where, I do not divine from the article. Now I object to this whole process, because it is most hazardous, and fails of its object in every particular but one: it gives color, it is true, but that even in excess. The oil is extracted from the seed, but from the fiery ordeal of our writer, owing to its volatile nature, it has escaped from the staple also, leaving it harsh and wiry, and deprived of more than half its value. The germinating principle in the seed has likewise been destroyed, and they are useless except for manure; and what planter, I would inquire, can afford to sustain such a loss, especially in the best portions of his seed? In my small experience in the management of cotton, I have found the following to succeed best, which I will describe in a few words: Gather with much care from the field; sun, or dry in the shade, until all moisture, whether from dew or rain, shall be entirely evaporated; then house, tightly packed in bulk, for two or three months, (longer, if convenient) before passing it through the gin. The result will be a soft, silky, elastic staple, with a color as beautiful and delicate as the most fastidious Frenchman could desire, and all accomplished in a very quiet way, without any "heating" or "cooling" process. This delay in its preparation might not suit so well the convenience of some planters, who seem to be running a sort of John Gilpin race to see who shall get their cotton to market first. I never have been able to discover the good sense of forcing the whole cotton crop of the U. States on the market, to be sold in the course of two or three months; a practice most prejudicial to the interest of the planter, who alone is able to hold it till the spinner needs it, when he might fix his own price upon it; but as it is, he is compelled to take just what anybody may please to give him, and he hawks it about the streets just as the boys do the light, trashy literature of the day, begging for a purchaser. This is most humiliating, when we consider the extent and importance of this great staple—so great and important, indeed, that the very existence of one of the greatest commercial nations of the known world, is supposed to depend upon the manufacture of it.

Yours, respectfully,

A PLANTER.

6.—COTTON GINS AND PRESSES.

A new cotton gin has been put in successful operation on one of the plantations of our informant. It is the invention of a gentleman named Parkhurst. Instead of saws, cards are used for removing the lint from the seed; it is then blown strongly against a close wire cylinder, which revolves, and from which the lint is taken by vibrating or revolving rods, coming off in a solid and most perfect roll of batting ready for the spinning-machine or press. Every particle of dust and trash passes through the wire cylinder. There is not a doubt of the perfect working of the machine.

This will be another great advantage possessed by the South over every other country, in manufacturing cotton: the lint may be carried at once from the seed to the spinning-machine, uninjured by damp or wet, much machinery and manipulations dispensed with, in bringing the saw-ginned cotton, taken from the bale to the point at which it would leave the card-gin.

In this connection we are reminded of another admirable improvement now making its way rapidly in Mississippi, Mr. McComb's labor-saving press. We have examined closely into the principles of construction and working of this machine, and think it likely to supersede the great majority of those now in use. It is cheap, durable and efficient, and of vast power. One horse easily brings a 450 pound bale down to shipping size in eight revolutions of the windlass—a vast saving of travel to the horse, and without any extra expenditure of exertion. The presses are made in Memphis.

The same mechanist has introduced what he calls a non-elastic tie for the bales when brought down to shipping size, by which they are kept at that size—a result unattainable with the hemp rope. These ties consist of oak, hickory, or other hoops, held together in the simplest manner possible. A notch is cut, or better bound with an iron made for the purpose, on the upper side of one end, and on the lower side of the other end of the hoop; when the hoop is passed around the bale in the press an iron link, similar to the links of a common trace-chain, is slipped on the hoop, catching in both notches; when the pressure is removed from the bale the link holds the ends of the hoop without a possibility of slipping or giving in any way. The hoops and iron links, already for a bale, are supplied at thirty cents per bale. And there is no reason why any planter should not make his own hoops—another step towards independence.

7.—FENCING.—WIRES VS. CEMENT.

An article extracted from De Bow's Review, on the subject of wire fences, is going the rounds of the press at the South. A comparison is therein instituted, in respect to cheapness and durability, between the ordinary plank fence and the wire fence of a Mr. Sibley, of St. Louis. It is unnecessary for our purpose to give the details:—the results arrived at by the writer, are, that a well-made plank fence, of best materials, 4 feet six inches in height, which costs \$1 50 per panel of same length, will cost only 60 cents. The wooden fence it is estimated, with much care will last fifteen or twenty years—the wire, with very little care, (keeping it coated with white lead,) will be good for fifty or sixty.

Now, we do not doubt but that many farmers in Alabama will be anxious to give the wire fence a trial. It is certainly more lasting, cheaper, and infinitely more sightly than the plank fence. And then, it is a St. Louis invention—it comes from a distance; “and distance lends enchantment to the view.” We ask their leave, however, to make a suggestion in favor of a home production, which is cheaper, more durable, and in every respect superior, to board fences, brick fences, or wire fences. Its only objectionable features are that the patentee lives in their midst, and that the fence may be made by every man from the dirt at his own door!

The cement invented and patented by John R. Remington, of Montgomery, is, in our opinion, a far more useful invention than even his *Aerial Bridge*. It makes the best roofing in the world, and applied as a paint to fences and timber buried in the ground, protects forever. But its chief use will be for making solid fences, rivaling granite in strength and durability, at a cost not greater than that of ordinary post-and-rail. So simple, too, is the process of manufacturing, that any plantation hand in a few hours, can be taught to make the cement for fences as well as the inventor. The most expensive ingredient being sand, the

chief cost is the labor of preparing it ; and this our readers are, most of them, more competent to judge concerning, than we. When it is recollected how much time is lost on every plantation by the hands, during "rainy spells," it will be evident to all that if the fence be as represented, and it can be manufactured by plantation hands, it must be the cheapest and best in the world.

Mr. Remington's estimate of the cost of his cement fence to the planter, is ten cents per panel of ten feet by five—four inches thick. But suppose that it is twenty cents, or forty cents, or even double that—it would still be under the cost of the wire fence.

But the wire fence requires a machine to put it up—the cement panels are conveyed, like rails, to the spot, and the two legs of each let into the ground like ordinary posts. The panel is up in ten minutes ; and every day adds to its strength. If a heavy tree should fall across and crush one of these panels, a few hours would suffice to make the cement and replace it ; but of course, the farmer who adopted this mode would keep on hand a few surplus panels for such contingencies.

In the course of a few days, we shall receive from Mr. Remington, to exhibit to our friends, a specimen panel of the cement fence, and also a specimen of the cement which is applied as paint to fences. The right to use the invention in all its forms, may be purchased by individuals at from \$25 to \$100.—*Tribune.*

8.—TEXAS GRAPES.

Mons. Matrat, a French gentleman, who was reared in one of the most extensive wine districts of France, has collected a large number of the best native grapes of Texas, and intends to cultivate them for the purpose of establishing vineyards of the best varieties. Mons. Matrat is a native of Burgundy, and he says Texas is a far better wine country than any portion of his native land. He discovered, in the vicinity of the old Spanish towns on the Little River and Brushy, several very remarkable varieties, which seem to combine the advantages of the foreign and native grapes. They have all the sweetness and flavor of the European sweet grapes, while the vines are as hardy as the hardiest native grapes. It is not improbable that some of these varieties were planted by the Spaniards, and the seeds having been scattered about, they have become gradually acclimated, like the Isabella and Catawba, which are regarded by horticulturists as only acclimated foreign grapes. Some of them, he says, resemble the grapes now cultivated at Parras and El Paso, in Mexico. They differ as widely from the native Fox grapes, as the Scuppernong or Isabella. Several of these varieties, we are informed, have been cultivated in the vicinity of La-grange, and are considered far superior to the best imported grapes.

9.—CULTURE OF ARROW-ROOT IN FLORIDA.

A correspondent of the St. Augustine Ancient City, speaking of this plant, says that he who knows how to make a crop of corn cannot fail in an effort to make a crop of arrow-root.

The planting may be begun at any time after the preceding crop has been gathered, the sooner the better. The eyes of the root (and if economy in seeds be an object, but one eye used be left on a cutting,) should be deposited in rows two and a half feet apart, and at the distance of fifteen or eighteen inches apart in the row, and covered with the plow or hoe to the depth of three or four inches. The after culture, as regards mode and manner, is identical with that of corn. Poor land will yield an average product through a term of years, of no less than eighty bushels per acre, whilst the good hammock lands of the interior, or lands fertilized by the application of appropriate manures, will yield, (I think I hazard nothing in saying) from one hundred and fifty to two hundred bushels, and perhaps more, to the acre. A bushel of roots with defective machinery, will yield six pounds of fecula, whilst from some, more than nine pounds have been extracted by careful manipulation. With such improvements of machinery as the importance of this crop will speedily secure, I think an average yield of seven or eight pounds of fecula may be safely anticipated. Bermuda arrow-root, now worth at wholesale from 20 to 25 cents a pound, is not

better in appearance than the Florida article, and for culinary purposes is greatly inferior, as ascertained by the careful experiments of a lady every way qualified to test practically this product of the two localities. Other advantages connected with the cultivation of this crop are found in the capacity of the plant to bear up against drought or excess of rain, its exemption from the ravages of insects, the protracted season of three months or more, during which it may be prepared for market, and finally its diminutive bulk as compared with its value, or with other crops, with the exception of tobacco.

10.—ANIMAL CHARCOAL.

J. D. B. De Bow, Esq.—My attention was recently directed to an article in the January number of your excellent Review, under "Article No. 5, of Manufacture of Sugar," in which you state "that the use of animal charcoal destroys the beautiful straw-colored tinge of the sugar, and imparts a disagreeable, neutral tint in its place." This remark, doubtless without any intention on your part, is calculated to do injustice to the manufacturer, besides conveying a false impression, which may abridge the use of this article. Allow me in a few words to set you right. It is well known in chemistry, that no article has been discovered which has a greater tendency for destroying noxious gasses than charcoal. It necessarily follows that it cannot impart, what it is so well calculated to destroy.

That an unpleasant odor has been found at times in sugar partly refined, and that the same has been attributed to the charcoal, I will admit. The charge, however, is not true; and the cause is mainly owing to the improper management of the charcoal after it has passed into the hands of the consumer, and not a necessary consequence of its use.

After it has been used the first time, until it has become saturated with feculent matter from the cane-juice, it becomes necessary to renew it. If this process is not thoroughly done, first by washing with pure water, and then reburning sufficiently to consume all the impurities contained in it, we shall never cease to hear that the charcoal imparts an unpleasant odor. Let the following directions be faithfully followed, and complaints of this character will cease. When the coal is saturated so that it will no longer de-color, revivification becomes necessary; while the coal is still in the filters it should be flooded with pure water, until it passes off as clear as it was turned on. It should then be suffered to drain for some time, then put into retorts previously heated, until it becomes a cherry-red color, after which it must be drawn into an iron box, with a tight cover to exclude the air, when the retorts may be again filled, and so on until all is finished for an entire crop. The better to do this, the consumer should have a sufficient stock on hand to pass his entire crop, and then he may revivify more at leisure for the following season. If this position is true, and all enlightened experience confirms it, it follows that the unpleasant odor complained of, arises from imperfect revivification. The coal after being first used is not thoroughly divested of impurities, which being suffered to remain, in a measure decay, and when fresh syrup is passed upon it, it imparts the unpleasant smell, and sometimes taste complained of. I would here caution consumers against employing any machinery for revivification, other than retorts, such as are used in gas-works generally, as they alone have been found to give entire satisfaction.

It is the experience of those who have used animal charcoal ever since its de-coloring properties were discovered, that it cannot impart any color whatever, as its property is to discharge color by absorption, not create it. The only reason why at times the syrup does not pass through the filters colorless, is that the coal has been previously partly charged with coloring matter; and that remaining is not sufficiently porous to take up all the coloring matter contained in the new charge.

JAMES J. BUTLER.

SOUTHERN INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

1.—SHALL LOUISVILLE CONTINUE A TRIBUTARY OF NEW-ORLEANS?

To J. D. B. DeBow, Esq.

In a late number of the Missouri Republican is published a statement of the disasters that have occurred on Western waters during 1850. From this statement it appears that of the disasters chargeable to the whole navigation between New-Orleans and Pittsburgh, *twenty* have been caused by impediments to navigation—snags, shoals, ice, or the like. These twenty disasters are distributed as follows:

- 2 between Pittsburgh and Louisville (639 miles).
- 16 between Louisville and Memphis (608 miles).
- 2 between Memphis and New-Orleans (787 miles).

\$250,000 have on this showing been lost by navigation between Memphis and Louisville; and if it be assumed that Louisville may be charged with 200,000 tons of canal tolls, the tax on her present communication with New-Orleans may be set down at some \$350,000. Now the question is, whether shall Louisville become a tributary to Cincinnati and New-York, or whether she shall maintain that connection with New-Orleans which has up to the present time given her abundant prosperity? One or other of these must, in the mind of every reflecting man, be considered the settled destiny of Louisville; that city is to be either an extremity *from* which the blood flows, or *to* which it flows. Her connection with New-Orleans, burdeed with such disadvantages—both of time and money—cannot stand the competition about to be opened on her by New-York; and her connection with New-Orleans being the fact on which she has grown and thriven, is in her case a fact whose continuance is a matter of life and death. What created Louisville? Her relation to Western rivers, and through that her connection with New-Orleans. Her position, at a break in Western navigation—in the direction of Western exchange—made her a Western storehouse; but when exchange shall have taken an opposite direction, her position, at a break-in Western navigation, will reduce her to the condition of a tributary—a summit from which the waters flow in opposite directions, but on which they never rest. A railroad from Cincinnati to Louisville will lock Louisville into the system of New-York tributaries; and as the very outpost of New-York trade, reduce her to a mere satellite of a more central city—Cincinnati. The only means of preventing this result seems to be the strengthening of the relations of Louisville with New-Orleans. At present she can meet the agencies tending to draw her trade to New-York, by only an agency encumbered with a yearly tax of from \$300,000 to \$1,000,000, in addition to its utter inefficiency for eight or ten weeks of the year. Half a million of dollars would hardly cover the loss of ten weeks *interruption* to navigation to the city of Louisville (as tending to change the flow of trade), and, coupling this fact with all the others, I am satisfied that the relations of Louisville with New-Orleans—the very life and soul of Louisville prosperity—are about to enter the lists with the relations of Cincinnati with New-York, under a burden equivalent to some million of dollars a year.

360 miles of road will connect Louisville with Memphis (the practical head of navigation of the Mississippi), and will at almost all times compete successfully with a navigation of 610 miles so miserably inferior as that of the Ohio. By making Memphis a ruling point for the freights of steamboats, those freights (which are now laid on to cover the disadvantages and dangers of all the upper rivers) will, for the distance between Memphis and New-Orleans, fall at least 50 per cent. If a boat can work on Lake Erie for one-fifth of the freights charged on Western rivers—laid on so as to cover the dangers and impediments of the worst actions—a boat can certainly work for one-half those rates between Memphis and New-Orleans. This fact will have the effect of reducing navigation between Louisville

and New-Orleans some 400 miles; and the road suggested will, when worked, in conjunction with the superior class of boats to which it will give rise, place Louisville, in point of time, within about three days of New-Orleans.*

M. B. H.

2.—GEORGIA RAIL-ROAD MOVEMENTS.

Total earnings of the Central Railroad and Banking Company, Georgia, prior and since 1839, \$753,383 28; total expenditure, \$637,847 23. Surplus added to reserved fund, \$115,536 05, making that fund now \$186,880 73. Resources and property of the company, \$4,047,695 29; liabilities, \$3,860,814 46. Dividend during last year 8 per cent., with prospect of increasing business from the Milledgeville and Gordon, and Milledgeville and Eatonton roads, the South Western, the Muscogee, and Waynesboro' road, which connect with it.

The following table will show a comparison of the various branches of business for the year just closed, with the previous one :

	1849.	1850.
Up freight, through	167,721 49	204,947 89
" way	39,774 37	55,160 75
Down Fr't. through	304,572 86	252,154 57
" way	66,003 32	70,577 95
Up pas'ge, through	22,345 66	28,936 44
" way	13,753 28	18,131 29
Down pas. through	21,611 18	22,225 34
" way	12,851 75	16,911 18
U. S. Mail	19,750 00	19,200 00
 Total earnings	\$663,383 91	\$683,245 41
Bales cotton, through	164,334	136,050
" way	39,391	39,981
Total bales cotton	203,725	176,031
 Whole number of passengers transported over the road the past year is 22,216.		
The current expenses of the road during the year, are exhibited under their appropriate heads, as follows :		
Maintenance of way	\$121,246 54	
" machinery and motive power	115,721 72	
" cars	29,583 12	
Transportation expenses	92,909 17	
Incidental expenses	3,429 14	
 Total	\$362,889 69	

South Western Rail-road.—The people in the Southwest will doubtless be gratified to learn that the work on the above road is rapidly progressing to completion. The grading is nearly finished—about two-thirds of the superstructure has been placed upon the track, and the work of laying the iron is now being pressed with all possible dispatch. The iron for the entire road to Oglethorpe is at the depot in this city. Several miles of it has been placed upon the track, and

* We learn, from undoubted authority, that between 30 and 40,000 bales of cotton raised in the "Tennessee Valley," in North Alabama, will be shipped up the Tennessee river this season to Chattanooga, and thence to Charleston.

New-Orleans loses all this cotton, and with it an item of about \$50,000 which has heretofore gone into the pockets of her merchants.

This diversion of a part of the trade of the far-famed Tennessee Valley, has been caused by the late opening up of a continuous line of a railway from Chattanooga to Charleston, and by the Muscle Shoals obstruction to navigation in the Tennessee river. Let New-Orleans, however, and New-Orleans merchants, subscribe liberally for stock in the Memphis and Charleston Railroad, (as they will soon have an opportunity of doing) thereby materially aiding to push on that great work to an early completion, and they will soon find this same trade returning to them with a two-fold increase. The Memphis and Charleston Road will drain every acre of the Tennessee Valley, and the superior facilities of getting to market by that road and by way of Memphis to the Crescent City, will be too obvious to be overlooked.—*Exchange.*

an engine is now duly employed in conveying it along the line. The bridges are nearly completed, and the depots and water stations on a part of the route are in a fine state of forwardness.

We understand that it is the intention of those having charge of the work to open the road to Fort Valley by the first of June, and to Oglethorpe early in July.

3.—KENTUCKY ROADS.

About \$1,200,000 of the Maysville Railroad Stock appears to be pledged, and eastern capitalists have offered to grade and bridge the whole work, and take one-fourth in stock. The whole cost of road is estimated at \$1,500,000.

4.—VIRGINIA RAIL-ROADS.

The efforts being made on the Virginia and Tennessee Rail-road, it is thought, will bring private subscriptions up to \$950,000, which will entitle the company to \$1,140,000 from the State Treasury in stock. The length of line, under contract, is seventy-one miles, which may be completed in a year. Contracts have been made to do the iron works and construct the locomotives by Virginia workshops, which take out a part in stock. Length of road from Lynchburg to Tennessee line, 207 miles.

5.—ALABAMA, TENNESSEE, AND SELMA ROADS.

The ground was broken on the Selma road, 25th December. Other contractors will soon begin to operate. A locomotive, a tender, thirteen freight cars, and a passenger car, have arrived for the Chattanooga rail-road. The preliminary surveys for the Memphis and Charleston rail-road are nearly completed, and the various routes surveyed have proved more favorable than was anticipated after the first reconnaissance made by the engineers. A meeting of the directors was to have taken place in January, to decide upon the most eligible route for the road; the time and place for the meeting will be advertised in due time.

V. K. Stephenson, President of the Chattanooga road, writes to the Mayor of Charleston—"The city of Louisville, Kentucky, is about to subscribe a million of dollars towards building a railroad to Nashville, so that Charleston will have reached, in this way, the Ohio, for the small outlay of half a million beyond her own State borders, for which she was once willing to spend millions. They have taken \$145,000 towards making our independent road from Manchester to Huntsville, Alabama. All things are tending to this point in good earnest, that the produce of this rich portion of the Mississippi valley may reach Charleston, with the confident belief that she will prepare for its direct shipment to Europe."

The Chattanooga Rail-road will be ready to the Tennessee as soon as the track reaches that river from Nashville; it will take two years to reach that point with the iron. The repairs and bridges on the Tennessee river will be ready at the same time. You will thus receive the entire road, viz.: one hundred and fifty-one and eight miles of branch to Shelbyville, from Nashville to Chattanooga, as under the old contract you were to obtain but the first 40 miles from the Tennessee river to Nashville, and at a saving of \$300,000—the first forty miles it will be remembered, included the tunnel. All the contracts are in good hands—as to the right of way, it is generally yielded nine cases out of ten, and frequently given out of the best and most valuable lands—the whole of the payments for such right, thus far, do not exceed two hundred dollars. Depot grounds have also been given along the route.

6.—NORTH CAROLINA RAIL-ROADS.

Wilmington and Manchester Rail-Road.—Gen. Harlee's address to the members of the Legislature and others, in the Commons Hall, in favor of the Wilmington and Manchester Rail-Road, of which he is President, gave universal satisfaction. He earnestly insisted that all that section of South Carolina, which he represented, desired, was an outlet for the products of their land now tied up at home, for the want of the transportation to market, and that end gained, there was no doubt but that North Carolina would reap all the advantages which must necessarily accrue from having so heavy an amount of foreign and domestic produce poured into the port of Wilmington, over and above its present trade. Gen. H. showed conclu-

sively, that while this road could not, by any possibility, inflict any injury upon us, it must necessarily be productive of much benefit, by enhancing the value of state works already built and in progress, and also by the increased value, both in price and productiveness, of the lands in the counties through which it will pass on this side the line. His remarks were all based upon calculations, made apparently with great care and accuracy, and in the impressive language of figures, appealed strongly and convincingly to the minds of his audience.

7.—VIRGINIA RAIL-ROADS.

That portion of the Richmond and Danville Railroad to the Chesterfield Coal Mines, has been completed. It was expected the road would be completed to the Appomattox river by this time, but the company has been disappointed in this, by the failure to receive the iron ordered from England several months ago. This, however, will soon arrive, and the work of laying the superstructure will be immediately commenced.

The progress of the road has been much delayed by the want of punctuality among the stockholders in paying their assessments.

There remains yet to be raised by individual subscription, the sum of about seventy-eight thousand dollars, to complete the private capital of this company, which, with the additional amount of one hundred and fifteen, dependent thereon from the state, would give us the sum of near two hundred thousand. The guaranteed bonds of this company, under the act of the last Legislature, will procure a sufficient quantity of heavy rail to reach some seventy miles, and the iron and timber already purchased and paid for, will reach Danville. The money to be subscribed, therefore, is principally for grading the road.

The report of the company favors the location of the road as far north as the interests of the work will allow, with a view of securing its connection with the Virginia and Tennessee Rail-road at Lynchburg, and also recommends an extension of the road into North Carolina so as to connect it with the Central road of that state.

The James River and Kanawha Company has during the last fiscal year paid the large sum of \$64,502 for interest on guaranteed bonds issued for the construction of improvements which are yet unfinished, and of course yield no revenue. This sum will be necessarily increased when those improvements shall have been completed, and their whole cost expended. But then they will begin to be productive; and there can be little doubt that their aggregate effect will be to furnish the means of paying at least the interest upon their cost. The dock connection, besides bringing the docks into active use, will tend greatly to increase the tonnage and tolls of the whole line by removing an onerous tax upon transportation. The South Side and Rivanna connections will materially widen the area from which the canal will draw its trade: and the Rivanna improvement, especially, must throw upon it nearly all the business of the Albemarle.

8.—LOUISIANA RAILROAD MOVEMENTS.

Attakapas Rail-road, Louisiana.—The planters of the Attakapas region of Louisiana are earnest in their advocacy of the work, which, as we understand it, involves but 21 miles of rail-road, and a cost of \$200,000. It would strike the Mississippi about Plaquemines, and connect the thriving Attakapas country with New-Orleans, by a speedy, safe and economical travel. In the saving of freights alone, it is supposed the planters would gain \$50 to \$75,000 on their sugar and molasses, to say nothing of the importance of being able at all times to reach market, a privilege they do not now enjoy. The result is, that New-Orleans loses much of the trade of St. Mary's, which finds a shipping port at Franklin, and our citizens should extend a hearty co-operation.

In regard to the present mode of reaching Attakapas, nothing in the world could be more "irksome and disagreeable," as our own experience teaches. We recollect being over three days on a steamer, working our way through the wood, brushing away mosquitoes, watching alligators, etc., or tied up to some landing place for a score of hours to receive on board a freight of sugar and molasses. Could greater obstacles be opposed to travel? We want to know more of our brethren of St. Mary's—they have a beautiful and fertile country, which, like

Araby the blest, makes "old ocean smile" with the perfumes of her fruits and flowers, and they have summer retreats by the sea shore which we would share with them and enjoy when the "Fiery Cross" is in the meridian.

A writer in the Planter's Banner thus speaks—It is well known that the sea route is tedious, circuitous and dangerous—so much so that few or no passengers venture that way; freights, too, are high. The Plaquemine route is equally circuitous and dangerous, and is impeded from four to six months in the year. The bed of Bayou Plaquemine, at its outlet from the Mississippi, has been known to be dry from August to about the 1st of March. The communication by that route now is by a tedious steamboat navigation part of the way, at high rates, with a portage of nine miles over a bad road, with indifferent conveyance, at high rates, with vexatious delays and expenses from the beginning to the end of the journey; whilst by the projected rail-road mentioned above, passengers would travel to and from New-Orleans in less than half the time and expense, and with more certainty; freights, too, could be carried cheaper during the season of low water, and probably equally low during high water, with more celerity, leaving a handsome profit to the road.

Tehuantepec Rail-road and a Line of Rail-road, etc., connection between New-York and California.—The company, which was projected in New-Orleans to construct a railroad across the Isthmus of Tehuantepec, have dispatched thither a corps of engineers, and applied a regular steamship to run from New-Orleans. Although it is an enterprise in which the city should feel a deep interest, it is yet one that belongs to the nation at large. The capitalists of New-Orleans should not consider it so peculiarly their own work, so as to lavish their exclusive means upon it. There are other routes, more immediately home, which should have at least equal favor.

A writer in the Washington Republic, shows that, by means of the road, and the great public works now stretching south-westward from New-York, that city may be connected with St. Francisco by a route which shall be 1500 miles shorter than the present, without the dangers of the seas. For example—

From New-York to Richmond, in Virginia, the lines of travel are complete. From Richmond, the "Richmond and Danville rail-road" is under contract for ninety miles, requiring a short branch to connect it with the "Virginia and Tennessee rail-road" at Lynchburg. There are two propositions to make this branch; its construction may be confidently relied on. The next section of the South-western National rail-road is "the Virginia and Tennessee rail-road;" it commences at Lynchburg and terminates at the Tennessee line. It will be two hundred and ten miles in length. This company has been organized with an individual subscription of \$750,000, a State subscription of \$900,000, and an engagement on the part of the State for a *pari-passu* subscription to the full amount of the capital stock. Of this road about sixty miles will be in use within the next year; eighty miles more will be let in November; and its friends are confident that they can command the amount necessary for its completion. The next section is the "East Tennessee and Virginia rail-road," extending from the Virginia line to Knoxville, a distance of one hundred and twenty miles. This company is organized with a subscription of about \$700,000: the surveys of location have been made, and a part of the work will be, we understand, under contract within a short time. The next section, from Knoxville to Chattanooga, in Tennessee, about one hundred and twenty miles in length, will be in operation within a few months. From this point there will be two modes of connection with New-Orleans—the one by the "Memphis and Charleston railroad," which will be about three hundred and twenty miles from Chattanooga to Memphis, and thence by the Mississippi to New-Orleans. This rail-road is organized with a subscription of \$1,500,000. The surveys of location are going on, the importance of the work and the enthusiasm of its friends will ensure its completion. From Chattanooga there will be another connexion with New-Orleans via the rail-road to Selma, on the Alabama river, and thence to Mobile. Such is the description of the several sections composing this important line of rail-road. There are other lines of improvement which will also compete for the transportation between the great commercial cities of New-York and New-Orleans. Assuming, then, that this Southwestern National rail-road will be completed as soon as the rail-road across the Isthmus of

Tehuantepec, let us compare the time and distances from New-York to San Francisco by this route with that by way of the Isthmus of Panama :

	Miles.	Days.
From New-York to San Francisco, via Panama	6,550	25
From New-York to San Francisco, via Tehuantepec, viz. :		
From New-York to Memphis	1,250	
Memphis to New-Orleans, via the Mississippi	802	
New-Orleans to San Francisco	3,850	
	—5,902	22

DEPARTMENT OF MANUFACTURES AND MINES.

1.—MANUFACTURES AND MINING IN VIRGINIA AND MARYLAND.

A convention, representing the manufacturing and mining interests of Virginia, met at Richmond. Major A. S. Woolridge, of Chesterfield, presided. At the second day's session of the convention, resolutions were adopted, declaring that in order to give prosperity to the mining and manufacturing interests of the country, nothing more is necessary than such moderate and stable discrimination in the imposition of duties, as will enable the domestic products fairly to compete with the foreign products of like kind in our own markets; and that the present system of duties fails to accomplish the objects indicated in several respects, particularly in leaving the domestic products of coal and iron essential to our natural security and defence, requiring heavy outlays, and needing the utmost practical stability, to depend on the fluctuations of European trade.

A committee on cotton and woolen manufactures was appointed, and made an able report, from which we take the following :

As far as your committee are informed, there are in the state of Virginia twenty companies, incorporated and privately engaged in the manufacture of cotton, with an aggregate capital of \$1,800,000. When in full operation, these companies employ about 54,000 spindles, producing generally coarse yarns, and sold as such, or converted into shirtings, sheetings, and osnaburgs. It is not known to the committee that there is a single factory designed for the production of yarns of a higher number than 20. For many months past these have not been in full operation; at present, about 7,000 spindles are running 3-4 time; 8,000 spindles 1-3 time; about 22,000 spindles at full time, at 3-4 wages to the operatives; 6,000 spindles stopped, and the remainder of the 54,000 spindles believed to be either working short-time, or are entirely idle. From the facts gathered by the committee, they are of opinion that the present production is about one-half the capacity of the mills, and that the entire capital invested in cotton mills in Virginia will be found to have paid no profit to the stockholders or proprietors for the years 1840 and 1850—the very few mills which have paid small dividends in the early part of the year 1849, will be much more than balanced by the losses of others—there can be no doubt that large losses have accrued upon the entire capital invested in cotton manufacturing in this state.

In Maryland, your committee find the state of things, if possible, worse than in our own state; and your committee submit in evidence a synopsis of the factories in that state, which will show a very large proportion either entirely idle, or working short-time.

Whole number of cotton factories	28
Working short-time	18
Working full-time	2
Entirely idle	8

The total production less than half the capacity of the mills.

WOOLEN FACTORIES IN MARYLAND.

Franklin mills at work. Calverton mill working half-time. In Virginia, 10 woolen factories, running 30 sets of machinery. Capital, \$275,000.

Your committee are not prepared to state, with accuracy, what proportion of the 30 sets are idle, but they know all are not at work, and they feel assured the end of the current year will find their condition worse than at the beginning of it.

The committee on mining and manufactures in general, reported among other things, as follows:

That their attention had been drawn to many articles of interest and value, some of them very important in their extent and character, and susceptible of being made largely productive to the wealth of the country.

The article of salt is one of these. There is now manufactured annually in the county of Kanawha alone about three millions bushels, which finds a market in the western and south-western states, producing at the average price upward of \$900,000 per annum, and requiring in its manufacture four or five millions of bushels of coal, and the labor of not less than fifteen hundred persons, and for packing the same, 450,000 barrels, at a cost of about \$115,000. In addition to which, may be added the cost of transportation, say \$100,000, and the employment of a large number of boat-men, and workmen in the foundries, copper works, &c., which supply the works with machinery, and other articles incident to the production of salt. In the counties of Washington and Smyth, there are now between three and four hundred thousand bushels of salt annually produced, and the quantity may be increased to an unlimited extent, and at a cost not exceeding 12 to 15 cents per bushel. Lead also exists, and has been mined to some extent in the county of Wythe, but the production is now confined to the wants of the immediate neighborhood, but could be increased to an indefinite extent.

Copper ores are also found in several counties, and may hereafter, by the encouragement of the copper manufactory of the country furnishing a market for them, become a source of much wealth, beside adding immensely to the consumption of our coal.

There are various other branches of manufacture that have been seriously injured under the tariff of 1846—separately, not of such importance as those articles which have been more prominently brought before the notice of the convention, but in the aggregate of material importance to the industry of the country, among which, we name alum, copperas, epsom salts, chrome yellow, bichromali and prussiate of potash, blue vitriol, white lead, and various other chemical preparations, also, glass and linseed oil. A small addition to the present rates of duty would establish the manufacture of these various articles.

Another committee, appointed to inquire into and report the condition of the coal and iron trades, reported that the condition of the coal and iron trade is depressed and discouraging. The present capacity of the mountain iron works near the James River, now established, is equal to the production of at least 2,500 tons of pig iron annually—their production the present year does not exceed 9,000 tons.

The committee remark, that it is a matter of not less mortification than astonishment, that Virginia, with an area of coal measures, covering not less than 21,000 square miles, very much of which lies on, or near navigable waters, and is capable of yielding all the varieties of British coal and of equal quality, should be reduced to the actual production of less than 200,000 tons, of the value of \$650,000; while Great Britain, with little more than half the extent of coal measures, produces annually 37,000,000 tons, of about the value of \$37,000,000 at the mines, and \$80,000,000 at the markets of sale.

2—MANUFACTURES IN GEORGIA.

The Albany (Ga.) Patriot gives the following description of the factories in the city of Columbus, in that State:—

The Coweta Falls Manufacturing Company's establishment occupies a large brick building, containing 2,500 spindles, which make from 1,400 to 1,800 pounds of thread per day; 44 looms, making 1,800 yards of heavy osnaburgs per day; 24 cotton cards, three wool cards, and one wool jack. They also manufacture a considerable quantity of linseys, which are more profitable than osnaburgs and yarns. They employ from 115 to 120 boys and girls, from twelve years old upwards. Average wages: superintendent \$1,000 per annum; overseers \$30 to \$60 per month; weavers \$15; carders \$8; spinners \$7 50. Power: one of Rich's centre vent wheels, five feet diameter, capable of carrying as much more machinery. Profits on investment 10 to 15 per cent.

Near this establishment is Carter's Factory—a large brick building, six stories high; cost, \$10,200; privilege, 3,000; calculated for 200 looms and 10,000 spindles; estimated value, when completed, \$100,000; will employ from 200 to 1,000 hands.

Not far from this building is the Howard Manufacturing Company's establishment. The building is of brick, 50 by 125 feet, six stories. It contains 5,000 spindles, 103 looms, 40 more to be added. Entire cost \$100,000. They manufacture 15,000 yards of cotton osnaburgs, sheetings, and shirtings per week, and 400 to 500 pounds thread; employ 100 hands, from twelve years old upwards, one-third of whom are males; wages from 12 to 75 cents per day for common hands; assistants \$1 to \$1 25; overseers from \$2 to \$2 50: superintendent \$900 per year. Consumption, 1,200 bales cotton. Past profits, under some difficulties, have varied from \$34 to \$100 per day; estimated future profits 20 per cent. on investment. There is an extensive machine shop connected with this manufactory. We examined some bales of cloth made by this establishment, and found it of a very superior quality. The hands, male and female, had a general appearance of cleanliness, health and contentment. The proprietors of the manufactories have made arrangements for preaching, Sunday schools, and daily free school, for the operatives and their families.

We next visited Winter's Palace Mills. This is a large brick edifice, of six stories, occupied by a machine shop, four runs of mill stones—two for wheat and two for corn—with all the necessary flouring apparatus, capable of turning out from 80 to 100 barrels of flour per day. The entire cost was stated to be some \$50,000. Ten thousand bushels of wheat had recently been purchased in Baltimore, and was being made into flour at this mill.

Near this establishment is one which is rightly termed "Variety Works"—sawing lumber, planing, making tubs, pails, bed-steads, window blinds, sashes, &c., all by machinery adapted to these purposes. This is doubtless one of the most profitable establishments in Columbus.

These several establishments are situated on the East bank of the river, and are propelled by water, taken from the great conduit which has been constructed of stone, to receive and retain the water of the Chattahoochee river at a sufficient elevation to afford the necessary power. The head of water thus furnished is from 10 to 14 feet. This conduit is calculated for supplying the power of many other manufactories.

There are two iron foundries in Columbus, which turn out a large amount of castings and machinery for mills, steamboats, &c. They employ a steam engine.

The City Mills, in the upper part of Columbus, is a large wood structure, occupied by four sets of mill-stones—two for flour and two for corn—and extensive flouring works.

On the river, above the city, are several establishments, which we had not the pleasure of visiting; among them the Rock Island Paper Manufacturing Company. Capital employed, \$40,000, to be increased to \$45,000, to complete the machinery. They now manufacture 1,000 lbs. Cost of rags and other materials from 1 to 3 1/2 cents per lb. Price of paper, from 10 to 12 1/2 cents per pound. Employ 7 girls, 2 boys, 13 men, and 1 teamster. Wages: girls \$8 per month; foreman \$100; machinist \$60; two operatives \$40 each. Main building, 75 by 36 feet, three stories, besides finishing room, warehouse, &c.

In all cases where we have given the wages, the parties employed board and lodge themselves.

3.—COTTON MILLS OF NEW-ENGLAND.

The following returns, based partly on the official census, show the number of mills and spindles in each New-England state using cotton wholly, leaving out all of those engaged in the manufacture of warps for satinets, merino shirts, mousse-line de laines, and shawls of mixed materials, of which it forms a component part:

	MILLS, SPINDLES AND LOOMS IN NEW-ENGLAND.		
	Mills.	Looms.	Spindles.
		1850.	1840.
Maine.....	15.....	3,439.....	113,900.....
New-Hampshire.....	40.....	12,462.....	440,401.....
Massachusetts.....	165.....	32,655.....	1,288,091.....
Vermont.....	12.....	345.....	31,736.....
Rhode Island.....	166.....	27,233.....	624,138.....
Connecticut.....	109.....	6,506.....	259,812.....
Total.....	507	82,640	2,754,078
			1,597,394

This shows a very considerable increase of production, being nearly ninety per cent. in the number of spindles. So rapid a production of yarns in one section of the country could not but swell beyond the increased consumption of the country, and in some degree produce that necessity for "holding up," which has become so obvious.

4.—THE MINERAL WEALTH OF ARKANSAS.

Arkansas is a border state, consequently rough and uncouth. It is somewhat more so than there is any reason it should be, for there has not been that advancement in the great race of progress, in which all the Western States are taking a part, which should have distinguished her. The fault is in the character of her population, which, we apprehend, have not yet become conscious of the advantages they possess, nor are they yet imbued with a sufficient degree of either intelligence or enterprise to appreciate their blessings, or to convert them to any practical use. The evil will, however, in time produce its own remedy, and we shall soon see Arkansas in the position to which she is entitled by the great natural resources she has within herself, although yet unrevealed.

There are traditions of old date in reference to the mineral wealth of Arkansas. Excursions were made in the early settlement of this country, by the French and Spaniards, in search of the precious metals, and the history of the times says, that these adventurous treasure-seekers were successful in discovering gold, silver, lead, and precious stones. By way of corroboration of these traditional statements, the country in certain localities bears convincing evidence of the presence, at some early period, of these gold-hunters, for doubtless nothing less than gold was at that time the object of their search. The ruins of furnaces, the fragments of crucibles, and the numerous "diggings" in spots, are all indisputable memorials of these expeditions. Be this, however, as it may, recent explorations have furnished the most reliable evidence of the inexhaustible mineral wealth of Arkansas. We have conversed with a very intelligent gentleman who has traversed a portion of the state, and his representations satisfy us, that in at least the two important articles of coal and lead, Arkansas will be, in the course of time, even with the states of Pennsylvania and Missouri together.

The discovery of a valuable character of lead ore is of recent date. This mineral is what is termed argentiferous lead ore, from the great amount of silver it contains. It is only two years since, that a vein on the lands owned by the South-Western and Arkansas Mining Company was discovered, which yielded, after a few weeks' crude labor, about fifty thousand pounds of ore. We learn from an authentic source, that this success gave an increased impetus to the enterprise; and in the fall of the same year, the mammoth vein, upon which the company are now working, was opened. With only four hands, there were raised, in four months, from this deposit, about four hundred thousand pounds of ore! crowning the exertions of the few individuals engaged in this undertaking, with a measure of success rarely equalled in the history of lead-mining in the United States. In addition to this amount, large quantities have been raised from a number of shafts sunk near where the mammoth vein was first struck.

Two or three large shipments of this ore have been made to Liverpool, England. Of these shipments, a lot of about one hundred tons sold at prices ranging from £18 to £21 per ton. Lead made from the ore at the mines, brought £37 10s per ton. These rates are about treble the value of any other lead ore found in the United States.

The assay of the first shipment of ore to Liverpool was as follows:—

"The pig lead produces one hundred and twelve ounces silver to the ton of lead.

"Lot ore 3 tons 4 cwt. contains 77 per cent. lead, which produces 54 oz. silver to the ton of lead.

"Lot ore 8 tons 17 cwt. contains 72 per cent. lead, which produces 44 oz. silver to the ton of lead."

The following is the result of several assays made at New-Orleans, by W. P. Hort, of the U. S. Mint:

No. 1. Lead ore (Galena sulphuret of lead), resembling that found in such abundance in Illinois—lead 85 per cent.; silver 30 oz. to the ton.

No. 2. Argentiferous lead ore (very different from the former), lead 70 per cent.; silver 150 oz. to the ton.

No. 3. Argentiferous lead ore; lead 70 per cent.; silver 200 oz. to the ton.

No. 4. Zinc ore—sulphuret of zinc, free from metallic alloys, and therefore very valuable—yields from 40 to 45 per cent. of metal.

Assays have been made of the ores of these mines by celebrated scientific men in various parts of the Union. They all agree in pronouncing this mineral to be the richest argentiferous ore ever found in the Union; and some of their tests show six per cent. of silver in many specimens.

These several mines, together with a large quantity of mineral lands in various sections of the state, are now the property of the South-Western and Arkansas Mining Company, incorporated by the Legislature in 1849, with a most liberal and advantageous charter. Of the successful results of this enterprise there can be no doubt, and the following anticipations, which we take from an article in the Arkansas State Democrat, are in moderation and within the scope of realization. The Editor, alluding to the progress made by the above-mentioned Company in mining, says, "We have the fullest confidence in the success of this enterprise. It will not only prove a source of immense wealth to the Company, but it must exert a very beneficial influence upon the prospects of our state. We have an abundance of mineral localities within our territory; and we only need one practical illustration of the profits of mining, to give an impetus to the enterprise of our people in every portion of the state. We predict that not many years will pass by before the annual shipments of minerals from our state will press hard upon the amount of our agricultural exports."—*N. O. Bulletin.*

5—SOUTHERN PRODUCTS TO THE GREAT LONDON FAIR.

Our neighbor, South Carolina, has been very active in her contributions to this fair; but as far as Louisiana is concerned, with all her talk, she will scarcely have exhibited a stick of sugar-cane, or a cotton stalk. One of her citizens, however, will attend—Lucius Duncan, Esq.

Up to the 4th inst., the following articles from South Carolina had been received and approved by the Central Committee at Washington, for exhibition at the great London Fair:

1. W. Seabrook, Sea Island cotton.
2. J. R. Jones, Upland cotton.
3. J. V. Jones, do. do.
4. Wade Hampton, do.
5. W. W. McLeod, Sea Island cotton.
6. E. T. Heriot, clear rice.
7. J. J. Ward, sheaf rice.
8. V. D. V. Jamieson, spirits turpentine.
9. J. Artman, one phæton carriage.
10. Chas. B. Capers, cypress canoe.
11. Graniteville Factory, shirting and drilling.
12. Charleston Factory, shirtings and sheetings.
13. Eugene B. Bell, palmetto, oak, cedar, and poplar woods.
14. John B. De Sausoure, sweet gum wood.
15. South Carolina Rail-road Company, one circular table.
16. Mary H. Mellichamp, one basket.

6.—STEAM-CAR FACTORY—CHARLESTON.

A large number of the new and elegant cars which have been lately placed on the South Carolina Rail-Road, are from the extensive manufactory of our fellow citizen, Mr. GEO. S. HACKER, in King-street, nearly opposite the Upper Guard House. The promptness and energy with which the site of this now lively and thriving scene of busy life has been, within a year past, metamorphosed from its former rugged, dilapidated aspect, speak volumes for the prospects of an enterprise begun under such unpromising auspices, and already carried out beyond the expectations of even its well wishers.

The factory under notice is, in all respects, a complete and comprehensive establishment. Everything is done by the aid of machinery, and principally by native workmen. The lumber is obtained from the vicinity of Edisto, brought to the yard in its rough state, and there passed through every stage of preparation for use. Three to five freight cars are sometimes turned out in a day, making an average of about one per day. Constant employment is given to about forty hands. Mr. HACKER is agent for the new India Rubber Car Springs, and is bringing them into gradual use upon our roads.—*Courier.*

GALLERY OF INDUSTRY AND ENTERPRISE.

WILLIAM GREGG, OF SOUTH CAROLINA.

WITH A PORTRAIT.

No. 3.

"This only grant me, that my means may lie
Too low for envy, for contempt too high.

* * * * *
Thus would I double my life's fading space,
For he that runs it well, *twice* runs his race.—*Cowley*.

THERE is a natural propensity in mankind to feel a greater degree of interest in the biography of illustrious statesmen and heroes, who by their political knowledge or heroism have contributed largely to their country's glory, than that of individuals who, with humbler pretensions, have pointed out to their countrymen those means by which labor can be honorably and profitably employed, and those sources of industry and enterprise by which the humble can find the means of profitable employment, by which capital may be safely invested, and the resources of a country at the same time greatly augmented.

We propose to give a brief sketch of the incidents in the life of an individual who, although not the earliest manufacturer of cotton cloth in Carolina, was the first in our estimation who, by his sound judgment and knowledge of machinery, demonstrated, to the conviction of the inhabitants, that our southern states were as well adapted to the manufacture of cotton as the most favored countries either in Europe or America.

WILLIAM GREGG was born in Monongala county, in Virginia, in February, 1800. His ancestors were Quakers, residing at Wilmington, in Delaware. His father, during the Revolutionary War, took up arms in behalf of his native country, and was among the troops who fought in defence of Charleston. Here he was taken prisoner by the British, at the surrender of the city. Whilst on the Road to Ninety-Six, with other prisoners, he managed to make his escape in one of our swamps, and found his way back to his native state. There he mar-

ried, and returned to South Carolina, and settled in Newberry District. He subsequently removed to Monongala, in Virginia, where the subject of our present memoir was born. At the age of four years, his mother died, which caused the separation of the family. He was now placed with an uncle, Jacob Gregg, who resided at Alexandria, D. C. He was a watchmaker by trade, by which means he had accumulated a large fortune. He also engaged largely in the manufacture of spinning machinery. In 1810, Jacob Gregg removed to Georgia, taking his nephew with him. Here he erected one of the first cotton factories in the South. It was located on Little River, (Whatley's Mills,) midway between Monticello and Madison. The machinery was principally of his own manufacture. During the continuance of the war, the enterprise was successful, and the return of peace brought with it such a flood of foreign goods into the country, that nearly all the establishments of this kind were prostrated. The depreciation of property invested in manufacturing establishments, ruined the fortune of Jacob Gregg, and he placed his nephew William with one of his old friends in Lexington, Kentucky, to learn the trade of a watchmaker.

William Gregg remained in Kentucky until 1821, when he went to Petersburg, to perfect himself in his profession. In 1824, he established himself in business in Columbia, S. C. By faithfulness and punctuality in his profession, he gained the confidence of the community, and prospered in his business. Much of a man's success in life, as

well as the peace and happiness of his home, depends on his choice of a companion in life, to cheer him in solitude, to strengthen his good resolutions, and render his home the seat of hospitality, of innocence and bliss. In this selection Mr. Gregg was eminently fortunate, having in 1829 married Miss Marina Jones, of Edgefield District, a lady whose intelligence, and the general excellency of her character, render her an ornament to her sex and a blessing to her family.

Mr. Gregg commenced business in Columbia with a limited capital, which had been accumulated by untiring industry, economy, and an assiduous attention to the duties of his profession. Not wanting in enterprise, he gradually enlarged his business. This was soon extended to an extensive European correspondence and direct trade. To effect this, he visited England and France in 1834 for the purpose of forming the necessary connections.

Having amassed a moderate fortune, and being in delicate health, he retired from business, believing that he possessed the means of providing his children with a good education, yet, at the same time, not such a superabundance as would lead them to believe that they were raised above dependence or self-exertion, which in so many instances proves the ruin of the sons of the wealthy.

When a man has accumulated a certain amount of wealth, the farther acquisition is comparatively easy; Mr. Gregg, however, did not possess that love of money that would induce him to avail himself of these advantages. Instead of becoming a broker, or a money-changer, he invested his means in commerce and manufactures.

In 1837 he purchased a large interest in the Vancluse Manufacturing Company, in Edgefield, intending to enter extensively into the manufacturing of cotton, but ill-health prevented him from purchasing that establishment when the Company sold out.

In 1838, Mr. Gregg removed to Charleston, where he resumed his former business in the firm of Hayden, Gregg & Company, successors to the old house of Eyland, Hayden & Co. It is now the house of Gregg, Hayden & Co., known in the South as extensive importing merchants; the terms of copartnership being such as to afford the senior partner of the house entire leisure from

the active labors of business. Naturally possessed of an active temperament, with a mind to which knowledge of every kind is easily accessible, his time and advantages have not been suffered to pass unimproved. He is, in every sense of the word, a self-made man. He sought for information from all quarters, and intuitively applied it to practical purposes, and in this way has laid up a fund of useful knowledge, which he has, from time to time, communicated to the public. His essays on domestic industry, originally published in Charleston, were re-published in nearly all the papers of Georgia, Alabama, and other southern states. They are believed to have been the origin of the extensive manufacturing operations at Augusta, the Charleston factory, the abandonment of the restrictions on steam in Charleston, the erection of the Graniteville factory, and numerous others in Georgia, and other states farther to the south.

Preparatory to writing these essays, Mr. Gregg visited the manufacturing districts of the Northern States. His notes were made whilst sojourning among the cotton spinners of the North. There is a vein of practical good sense running through these essays that cannot fail to carry conviction to every unprejudiced mind.

In his preface he says, "We all know what the manufacturing of cotton has done for Great Britain. It has given her an influence which makes all other states tributary to her. We also know, that this branch of manufacture was the foundation on which that vast and continually increasing structure has been reared in New-England, which has given an impetus to all other species of manufactures, infusing a spirit of enterprise, health, and vigor, into every department of industrial pursuits. I have always been a close observer of things, but when I visited the mountainous districts of Connecticut, Massachusetts, Vermont, and New-Hampshire, (for it is pushing itself to the very summits of the mountains,) I could not but notice, with surprise, the effect which this branch of manufacture had produced. Wherever it finds its way, all other branches of industry follow. It brings into requisition every element around it, gives value to every species of property, and causes each and every individual to cling to his little domain as the future home of his children, and resting place for his bones; and though it be a barren rock, he places a value on it scarcely to be estimated. Every water-fall is brought into use; every forest tree is measured, even to its topmost branches, (for nothing is lost in that country)



GRANITEVILLE COTTON FACTORY, GRANITEVILLE.

after the trunk has been worked into boards and shingles, the tops are cut into laths. Compare this state of things with that of our state, in which a man hesitates about building a comfortable dwelling-house, lest the spirit of emigration deprive him of its use, in which the cream of its virgin soil is hardly exhausted, before the owner is ready to abandon it, in search of a country affording new and better lands,—in which our forest lumber cutters fell, with ruthless hand, the finest timber trees on the face of the globe, selecting those portions which are the most easily turned into merchantable lumber, and leaving the balance to rot on the ground where it was cut, in which so soon as the best timber is exhausted, a water-fall, which would be worth thousands of dollars in any other country, is abandoned as wholly worthless, and in which men possessing the capital of the country, complain that it will not yield them three per cent."

"When I saw bags of our cotton arrive in those mountainous districts, which had been packed in the interior of South Carolina, and wagoned over miserable bad roads (in some instances one hundred miles) to Hamburg or Columbia; thence transported one hundred and thirty-six miles by rail-road to Charleston, where it is sold, after being submitted to the charges of drayage, wharfage, commissions, and perhaps storage; thence re-shipped to New-York to undergo similar charges, where it is purchased by one of these manufacturers and again re-shipped to Hartford, and from the last-named place, making a dangerous and difficult passage up the Connecticut River, is landed, and again hauled in wagons, some thirty or forty miles, over mountainous roads; and having now reached its final destination, (at double its original cost,) is manufactured into coarse cloth. Going over the same ground again, it reaches New-York, where it is re-shipped to Charleston, and finds its way back again into the interior of our state. I repeat, when I saw these things, and knowing, as I do, the rich resources of South Carolina, and the facility with which this cotton could be turned into cloth, by the labor around us, which might be applied to it without detriment to other pursuits—could it be expected, that I would write without using strong terms?"

We re-published in our volumes last year, the major portion of the valuable essays of Mr. Gregg, upon cotton manufacture at the South, and have since received his able address before the South Carolina Institute for the promotion of arts, mechanical ingenuity and industry, which we hope to publish before long. Meanwhile we quote the closing paragraph, in which Mr. Gregg looks into the future of Carolina.

"And her prosperity will be in full tide when we shall hear of large factories putting up at the East to be filled with thousands of

power looms to weave up our Southern yarn. When the live stock and hemp bagging which we receive from Kentucky will be brought on rail-road cars, to return laden with our cotton domestics. When we shall see a large portion of the swamps of the Santee, Pee Dee, Wateree, Congaree, Edisto, Savannah, and other swamps, brought into cultivation, the Ashly and Edisto connected by canal, the stock of the Santee Canal restored to its original value by the transit of boats loaded with grain and hay, supplying our low country with that which we are importing from other States. When our hills shall be covered with green pastures and grazing flocks of sheep, and we shall have rail-roads and turnpikes leading to every portion of the state. When our lumber cutters shall be found to be engaged in producing materials for the construction of towns and villages in our own state,—then will, the tide of our prosperity be in full flood; we will then be no longer under the necessity of looking for relief through limited production; we will have ceased to be under the influence of the fluctuations of the Liverpool market; we will have rid ourselves of that position which has made us of recent days a foot ball to be kicked about by the Manchester Spinners and Liverpool Cotton Brokers. Our tub will stand on its own bottom."

In 1845, application was made to the Legislature of South Carolina, for a charter of incorporation of the Graniteville Company. As incorporations were at that time unpopular in the state, it was doubtful whether such a charter could be obtained as would be acceptable to the stockholders; these doubts enlisted his anxious efforts, and caused him to publish the pamphlet entitled "An inquiry into the expediency of granting charters of incorporation for manufacturing purposes in South Carolina," signed, "one of the people." A copy of this pamphlet was placed into the hands of each member of the Legislature, and we have no doubt, that it was finally instrumental in producing the great change in public sentiment which has since taken place. The Graniteville charter, which is a very liberal one, was passed by a large majority of both houses. The same pamphlet was re-published in Georgia, and was laid before the Legislature of that state, and no doubt had its effect in producing a favorable view of this subject in that state.

Immediately after obtaining a charter, the Graniteville establishment was commenced with a capital of \$300,000. Mr. Gregg took the entire supervision of the work, and de-

voted three years of laborious and assiduous attention to its erection without any charge to the company for his very efficient services. The work is now completed, and has been for some time in successful operation. There are 9,000 spindles, 300 looms, producing 12,000 yards per day of drillings, sheetings, and shirtings from 14 yarn. The establishment giving support to 900 people, who formerly enjoyed but scanty means of procuring food and clothing, and less for educating their children, but have now comfortable homes—the means of making an honest livelihood—of educating their children free of expense, and of worshiping God in the churches of their choice.

We regard the establishment at Graniteville as a model factory, where ornament and taste are combined, where the labors of the operatives are rewarded, whilst due attention is paid to their comforts, education, and morals, reflecting credit on the institution, and above all, on its enterprising, intelligent, and benevolent founder.

Having published in our previous volumes very full and minute accounts of the practical operation and improvements at Graniteville, we cannot better conclude this hurried sketch than by presenting to our readers a view of one of the most thriving manufacturing villages in the Union, and unquestionably the first in all the South.

EDITORIAL AND LITERARY DEPARTMENT.

I.—SOUTHERN WATERING PLACES AND SCENERY.

DURING last summer we spent several months in the indulgence of recreation among the watering places of the South, and made some light sketches for our pages, of the life and cheer which prevailed among them. It is our intention to continue these "ramblings" from season to season, and let the public know how much they may expect and realize, without the consecrated names of Newport and Saratoga. We also beg our friends to furnish us sketches from their own experience in these matters, and they shall cheerfully have a place.

Since the last season closed, we understand that the *Mississippi Spring* and *Cooper's Well*, have passed into new hands, and that great improvements have been spiritedly undertaken. Of the *Artesian Wells* we have heard nothing. There are other watering places in the interior of Mississippi, of which a report is desirable.

In the south-western states the following places of resort, in addition to the above, occur to us at this moment—*Drennon's Lick* and *Harrodsburg*, Kentucky; *Harden's Springs*, Tennessee; *Hot Springs*, Arkansas; *Bladen's Springs*, Alabama, &c. On the Gulf Coast, we have *Lost Island*, *Bay of St. Louis*, *Pass Christian*, *Biloxi*, *Pascagoula*, *Point Clear*, &c.

We are really desirous of publishing a complete list of all the places of a similar character, in any of the southern or south-western states; and in addition to this, will insert in our *advertising* department the cards of each of them, with wood engravings where desired, if so instructed by the proprietors. As our work has now a circulation immensely larger than any other at the South, and extends throughout all the states included, it must present a better mode of advertising than the *local* papers; and considering the enormous expence and labor we are put to, it is but natural to desire an enlargement of its *revenue*. Considering the post too, we shall hardly be accused of any *avidity* to gain.

On the table before us is the Southern Quarterly Review, in which is an interesting paper from the pen of the editor, descriptive of the scenery and summer resorts of the states of Virginia, North and South Carolina, and Georgia, from which we make some extracts, omitting remarks upon Sullivan's Island, as we have in our January number discussed that "happy isle" in full.

But before proceeding further, let us quote approvingly the counsel which Mr. Simms administers to the "mine hosts" of our "Southern Saratogas," and express the hope they will need none other admoni-

tion. If they would reform our "distant travel" propensities they must present sufficient inducements *at home*. Bacon and greens half cooked, corned bread and venerable butter, coffee and tea which have a smack of each other, but a greater smack of smoke and hot water, will not do. We have an abundant provision country—are not ignorant of culinary requirements—have the wherewithal to live well, (we mean the Southern people,) and please God intend to live well while life shall last, let mine host think and act as he pleases.

HINTS TO "MINE HOST."

"Now, of all that philosophy, which prepares the food with a due regard, not only to the meats and vegetables themselves, the graces and the gravies, but to the tempers of the consumers, we are sorry to confess that we have but little in our vast interior. Our mountain cooks think they have done everything when they have murdered a fillet of veal or a haunch of venison,—sodden them in lard or butter, baked or boiled them to a condition which admirably resembles the pulpy masses of cotton rag, when macerated for paper manufacture,—and wonders to see you mince gingerly of a dish which he himself will devour with the savage appetite of a Cumancie! You have seen a royal side of venison brought in during the morning, and laid out upon the tavern shambles;—you have set your heart upon the dinner of that day. Fancy reminds you of the relish with which, at the St. Charles, in New-Orleans, or the Pulaski, in Savannah, or the Charleston hotel, you have discussed the exquisitely dressed loin, or haunch, done to a turn; the red just tinging the gravy. the meat just offering such pleasant resistance to the knife as leaves the intricate fibres still closely united, though shedding their juices with the eagerness of the peach, pressed between the lips in the very hour of its maturity;—or you see a fine "mutton" brought in, of the wild flavor of hills; and you examine, with the eye of the epicure, the voluminous fat, fold upon fold, lapping itself lovingly about the loins. Leg, or loin, or saddle, or shoulder, suggests itself to your anticipation as the probable subject of noonday discussion. You lay yourself out for the argument, and naturally recur to the last famous dinner which you enjoyed with the reverend father, who presides so equally well at the church of the St. Savori, and at his own excellent hotel in the Rue des Huitres.

With such recollections kindling the imagination, our extempore hotels of the Apalachian regions will doom you to frequent disappointment. You see yourself surrounded by masses that may be boiled or roasted polypi for what you know. But where's the mutton and the venison? You call upon

the landlord—a gaunt-looking tyke of the forest, who seems better fitted to hunt the game than take charge of its toilet. He is serving a score at once; with one hand heaping beef and bacon, with the other collards and cucumbers, into conflicting plates; and you fall back speechless, with the sudden dispersion of a thousand fancies of delight, as he tells you that the mutton, or the venison, which has been the subject of your reverie all the morning, lies before you in the undistinguishable mass that has disinterested you with notions of the polypus and sea-blubber, or some other unknown monstrosities of the deep or forest. But the subject is one quite too distressing for dilation. We feel for our readers, and must forbear. But, we solemnly say to our Apalachian landlord, "Brother, this thing must be amended. You have no right to sport thus with the hopes, the health, the happiness of your guests. You have no right, in this way, to mortify your neighbours' flesh. Have you no sense of the evil which you are doing—no bowels of sympathy for those of other people? Is it pride, or indolence, or mere blindness and ignorance, which thus renders you reckless of what is due to humanity and society, and all that fine philosophy which the Roman epicure found essential to reconcile to becoming sensibilities the mere brutish necessities of the animal economy? You must import and educate your cooks. You must appreciate justly the morals of the kitchen. You must study with diligence, night and morning, the profound pages of the Physiologie de Gout; you must forsake those streams of lard, those cruel abuses of the flesh, those hard bakings of meat otherwise tender, those salt and savage soddenings of venison, otherwise sweet, those mountings of long collards, inadequately boiled, and those indigestible masses of dough, whether in the form of pies, or tarts, or biscuit, which need a yeasty levity before they can possibly assimilate with the human system.

VIRGINIA SPRINGS.

Along the sea, who needs to be reminded of the Old Point and Fortress Calhoun, the salubrious breezes and beauties of which re-invigorate the spent sages of the capital, after the brutal and harassing strife, the cogging and cajoling cares of a wearisome congressional session? Of what is historical and traditional, in the great rivers which glide from her bosom into the Atlantic, we have all the clues in our hands when we remember that last representative of the days of chivalry, singularly unfortunate in an unheroic name, John Smith; when we recall the mighty chief, Powhatan; his successor, still nobler than himself, the famous, fierce old Apalachian, Opechancanough; the lovely natural Christian, Pocahontas; the lonely ruin of Jamestown, the decaying nest of a bird that has reared a progeny so numerous as to cover the face of the land. Nor can we forget Mount Vernon, sacred to later

histories, and destined for longer duration in sublimer memories. Richmond, as nobly situated as any city in the United States, an abode of grace and genius, may well arrest the footsteps of the wayfarer for a season, while tracing his route through the picturesque and grateful regions of Virginia. Its beauties have never received the full measure of justice at the hands of the author or the artist. The special places of retreat for health, and for the cure of disease, in Virginia, are better known, and are singularly numerous. Her several sulphur springs have a world-wide reputation. That of the White Sulphur, of Greenbriar, in especial, affords one of the most grateful watering places in America. The spot lies on the western declivity of the Alleghany, in a spacious valley, scooped out beautifully from the bosom of the sheltering mountains. Art has not yet striven, in rivalry with nature, in this exquisite and salubrious abode; she has sought only to render the latter fairly accessible to the examination, if not enjoyment, of the spectator. An ample province, of more than twelve thousand acres, admirably susceptible of improvement, will hereafter employ the agencies of taste and wealth, and give great increase to the singular attractions of the region in all respects; not the least of which is to be found in that frank, elegant, and high-toned society, which, with some small exceptions, can only, in the United States, be found in their Southern portions.

The Warm Springs in Bath County, lie north-east, some forty miles from those of the White Sulphur. They occupy a sweet and fertile valley, a couple of guardian mountains on each hand, locking them in as so much precious treasure. The view from these mountain summits, conducting the eye over a thousand corresponding terraces, range upon range,—a vast ridge stretching away for more than fifty miles,—is one of the most commanding and impressive in the country. In the neighbourhood of these 'springs' you have the famous "Blowing Cave," described in Jefferson's Notes; a curious miracle in nature, from which the wind, supplied by some secret Cyclopean bellow, rashes forth in a torrent which is almost irresistible. In the same lovely valley with the "Warm," are the "Hot Springs," of strong medicinal qualities and greatly popular. The Grayson Sulphur Springs, in Carroll County, are of recent reputation, and rising still in favour. They are supposed to be of much efficacy in rheumatism and dyspepsia. Rising on the west side of the blue Ridge, the site partakes of all the physical characteristics of Harper's Ferry. The scenery is bold and grand, marked by a peculiar wildness, and warmly exciting to the imaginative and romantic nature. Jordan's White Sulphur Springs have recently risen into favor. They are said to resemble those of Greenbriar. They are in the County of Frederick, a few miles north of the town of Winchester. The Shannondale Springs are beautifully situated upon the

Shenandoah, in Jefferson County. The Blue Ridge peers above them at the distance of a few miles only.

VIRGINIA SCENERY.

Who needs be told of the pass of the river of Powhattan, where it breaks through the mighty towers of the Alleghany?—an awful gap, with the walls of granite closing it on either hand, while the stream, forcing its way over its thousand barriers of rock, sends up a perpetual roar, the voices of a strife enduring through a thousand ages! Who forgets what Jefferson has said of the passage of the Potomac through the Blue Ridge, at Harper's Ferry—that the sight is worth a voyage across the Atlantic! "You stand," says he, "on a very high point of land. On your right comes up the Shenandoah, having ranged along the foot of a mountain a hundred miles, to seek a vent. On your left approaches the Potomac, in quest of a passage also. In the moment of their junction they rush together against the mountain, rend it asunder, and pass off to the sea." Would you enjoy a wondrous mountain prospect?—there are the Peaks of Otter, an empire in the air, with a world of empire at its feet, on the summit of which John Randolph lay a night in deep watch and religious musing, filled with sublime convictions, and crying aloud, as the sun rose upon his vision in the morning, "Henceforth let no man say to me there is no God!" Would you be reminded of "those days when there were giants in the land?" Visit the Cyclopean towers—seven mighty forms grouped together, near the Augusta Springs, in the county of the same name. Weyer's cave, in the same county, is one of the great wonders of the world, comparable with the famous grotto of Antiparos. Pursue the track of the Great Kanawha, and meditate sublime fancies at the foot of that wondrous natural monument, now called Marshall's pillar. The ice mountain of Hampshire is another of these remarkable works of nature, which it behoves you to visit;—the natural tunnel of Scott County, still more wonderful—and the mammoth mound at Grave Creek,—a trophy of primitive art as full of mysteries as the pyramids of the Egyptian!

ATTRACTI0NS OF THE OLD NORTH STATE.

North-Carolina has too frequently suffered from the disparagement of superficial wits and travelers. Her misfortune chiefly arises from the same cause which has injured her two sisters on either hand. She has been one of the great maternal States of the southwest. Her young men have been drawn from her by incessant emigration. A sparse population has impaired the strength, and lessened the enterprise, if not the virtues, of her society. Morally, she is one of the noblest States of the confederacy. She has no debts, and will incur none. Her paths are those of peace and prudence. Her enter-

prise is curbed by a jealous honesty and circumspection, which trembles to do wrong. The habits of her people are simple and unsophisticated. They are manly and hospitable; as true and fearless as those of any people in the South; and as firm and tenacious when committed to a cause. They may be relied upon as friends. They are to be feared as enemies. Her yeomanry belong to the same sturdy, unaffected, hospitable classes which occupy the great interior of Virginia, South-Carolina and Georgia; and the events that shall array the people of the latter States in action, will find her's ranging along with them, prepared to partake the same destinies. The chief want of North-Carolina is that of a large commercial mart. Her facilities of trade have hitherto been few, and the impulse which, in States, is derivable mostly from commerce, has been denied to her condition. Her railroads have been gradually repairing this deficiency.

As a resort for summer travel, North-Carolina presents a field scarcely less ample than Virginia. Her mountain regions are quite as salubrious, nay, absolutely perfect in their salubrity. Her medicinal springs are only less famous, but not less deserving. She is less accessible to the traveler, and this is the great want under which she labors. The facilities which shall open to us the doors to the gigantic avenues among her mountains, are yet to be provided. The railways which South-Carolina and Georgia are rapidly extending to her granite borders, will supply, in some degree, these facilities; and, in the meantime, let the traveler adopt the Virginia method, and employ the saddle rather than the coach. On horseback, he can penetrate to a thousand retreats of health and beauty, which he would not otherwise reach; and acquire a wondrous vigor and elasticity of heart and frame, by an average progress, over the Apalachian terraces in her domain, of thirty three miles per day. He may effect no small progress, as Mr. Lanman did, in incidental pedestrian journeys. This will certainly be the process if he be an artist. Mr. Lanman's route in North-Carolina was from Trail Mountain, in Georgia, to the Owassa, or (as we write it, and prefer to write it, in spite of our traveler) the Hiwassee, a tributary of the Tennessee; thence along the valley river which empties into the Hiwassee; thence across the spurs of the Nantahala, which, according to our traveler, means "Woman's Bosom." Pursuing his course in this region, he gets glimpses of Bald and Whiteside Mountain—the latter otherwise called the Devil's Court House—a granite cliff, smooth-faced for half a mile, and twelve hundred feet high,—the very sight from which makes the head swim and the heart sink. By passing over a span of rock, but two feet in width, which overhangs the precipice, you may reach a cave in the summit of this mountain; an enterprise of so much peril, so well calculated to inspire awe and trepidation, that but one man was ever known to undertake it. His perils, on the

occasion, did not arise merely from the narrowness of this bridge—one which reminds us of Al Sirat, the Muslim bridge to Paradise. When approaching the mouth of the cave, our explorer encountered a huge bear just making from it. Fortunately, the surprise of the bear was quite as great as his own; the animal being so startled at such an unusual invasion, that he leapt the precipice and was dashed to pieces; but the man was so much terrified at the danger he had escaped, as to be compelled to remain some hours before he could so quiet his nerves as to venture his return.

BUNCOMBE.

We traveled by night from Asheville, on the route to the Warm Springs. We reached the river, along whose margin thence the road proceeds, about the dawn of day. In the vague and misty twilight, the first flashings of the foaming torrent rose in sight, and, as the opposite shores could not be distinguished at that early hour, and in consequence of the heavy mist which overhung them, the illusion was perfect which persuaded us that we were once more on the borders of the great Atlantic Sea. These curling, flashing, white billows, reeking up and rolling over, and wallowing one after another, upon the shore, were the combing surfs upon our sandy islets along the eastern coast. The illusion was wonderfully aided by the deep and solemn roar of the perpetually churning billows. They were the identical voices of the sea that we heard—as if these themselves were not properly natives of the deep, but mountain voices, torn away from their proper homes, and perpetually wailing their exode in a chaunt which is mournful enough to be that of exile. It was only in the full breadth of day that we could scan the boundaries beyond, and justly appreciate the wild grandeur of the route along which we sped. Our road, an excellent one for the mountains, is cut out along the very margin of the river. Occasionally, there is no ledge to protect you from the steep. The track does not often admit of two carriages abreast; and huge, immovable boulders sometimes contract, to the narrowest measures, the pathway for the single one. You wind along the precipice with a perpetual sense of danger, which increases the sublimity of the scene. The river, meanwhile, boils and bounds, and rages at your feet, tossing in strange writhings over the fractured masses of the rock, plunging headlong, with a groan, into great cavities between, now fretting over a long line of barrier masses, now leaping, with a surging hiss, down sudden steps, which it approaches unprepared. Beyond, yon note the perpendicular heights, stern, dark, jagged, impending a thousand feet in air. You find yourself suddenly in a cavernous avenue. Look up, and behold an enormous boulder, thrust out from the mountain sides, hanging completely over you like a mighty Atlantean roof, but such a roof as threatens

momently to topple down in storm and thunder on your head. And thus, with a sense keenly alive to the startling aspects in the forms around you, the superior grandeur of the heights, the proof which they everywhere present that the volcano and the torrent have but recently done their work of convulsion and revolution, you hurry on for miles, relieved occasionally by scenes of a strangely sweet beauty in the stream;—when the waters subside to calm; when they no longer hiss, and boil, and rage, and roar, in conflict with the masses whose bonds they have broken; and when, leaping away into an even and unruffled flow, they seem to sleep in lakes whose edges bear fringes of flowery vines, and the loveliest floral tangles, from which you may pluck at seasons the purplest berries, drooping to the very lips of the waters. Sometimes, these seeming lakes gather about the prettiest islets, such as prompt you to fancy abodes such as the English fairies delighted to explore, and where, indeed, the Cherokee has placed a class of spirits, with strange mysterious powers, who were acknowledged to maintain a singular influence over the red man's destinies. A landscape painter, of real talent, would find along the two great stems of the French Broad, or Tselica, a thousand pictures, far superior to anything which Yankee manufacture has ever yet gathered from the banks of the Hudson, or the groups of the Catskill.

Of the Warm Springs, which still indicate the near neighborhood of those volcanic fires by which the passage of the Tselica was opened through its barrier mountains, Mr. Lannan might have made a pleasant chapter. But he gives us only a paragraph. These springs

"are thirty-six miles from Asheville, and within six of the Tennessee line. There are several of them, the largest being covered with a house, and divided into two equal apartments, either one of which is sufficiently large to allow of a swim. The temperature of the water is 105 degrees, and it is a singular fact, that rainy weather has a tendency to increase the heat, but it never varies more than a couple of degrees. All the springs are directly on the southern margin of the French Broad; the water is clear as crystal, and so heavy that even a child may be thrown into it with little danger of being drowned. As a beverage, the water is quite palatable, and it is said that some people can drink number of quarts per day, and yet experience none but beneficial effects. The diseases which it is thought to cure are palsy, rheumatism, and cutaneous affections. The Warm Springs are annually visited by a large number of fashionable and sickly people, from all the Southern States, and the proprietor has comfortable accommodations for two hundred and fifty people. His principal building is of brick, and the ball-room is 230 feet long. Music, dancing, flirting, wine-drinking, riding, bathing, fishing, scenery-hunting, bowl-

ing and reading, are all practiced here to an unlimited extent; but, what is more exciting than all these pleasures put together, is the rare sport of deer-hunting."

MOUNTAIN SCENES OF SOUTH CAROLINA.

We speed to Greenville, Spartanburg, or Pendleton, points from which you may diverge to a thousand spots of a scenery not surpassed in any of the sister States. On your route, you pause at Glenn's Springs, one of the most fashionable of the watering places of South-Carolina. These springs belong to the same family, the members of which are scattered throughout all the South, in parallel regions, from Virginia to Mississippi. They possess the same general characteristics, and are probably equally medicinal, being impregnated more or less with sulphur, magnesia and salts. At Glenn's Springs you will make the acquaintance of the gentry of the middle and upper country generally, with a slight sprinkling of others from the seaboard. The former are here in considerable numbers throughout the season. You will find them equally courteous, intelligent and frank; easy in their manners, and prompt and graceful in their hospitalities. From this point the transition is easy to Spartanburg, a region of perfect health throughout, lying beautifully for farming, and remarkably well settled. Here you find other medicinal waters, the Cedar, the Pacolet, Limestone and Sulphur Springs, each of which has its advocates, though their visitors are much less numerous than those of Glenn's. The Pacolet, and other falls and rapids, are objects of great curiosity; and the famous battle-field of the Cowpens affords a point of great attraction to him who loves to seek out the memorials of the Revolution. But, if the object be mountain scenery, the traveler will speed for Greenville, which lies adjoining, to the north and west. The village of this name is a beauty among villages, and its cascade of Reedy River, which skirts the settlement, affords numerous subjects for the painter. In the northeast angle of the district, however, you find bolder pictures, where the beautiful blends with the sublime, and impresses the imagination with images at once of the stupendous and the sweet.

The Hogback Mountain, a cragged and perilous ascent, that might find a more suitable name, is the first of a lordly brotherhood of heights, which enshrine a thousand scenes of the terrible and lovely. Adjoining it, we have the Glassy Mountain, so named because of the glazed beauty of its rocky sides, trickling with perpetual water, in the sunlight. The waters which flow from these mountains form the sources of the Tiger and the Pacolet. Here, also, you have the Saluda and Panther Mountains, and, above all, the wonderful rocky cliff and precipice of Cesar's Head—a name given to it from a remarkable profile, which, at one view, the crag presents, of a human, which might be a Roman, face. Sachem's Head would

be much more appropriate to the aboriginal locality, as the profile is quite as proper to the Indian as the Roman type of face. As the name of the Indian priest in the Southern States was Iawa, this title would seem a not inappropriate one to the stern, prophet-like image which this rock affords. The mountain itself is an entire mass of granite, rising abruptly from the valley, through which a turbulent river hurries upon its way. From the precipice, on this quarter, you have one of the most magnificent prospects that the world can show. Standing upon the edge of the cliff, your eye courses, without impediment, to the full extent of its vision, leaving still regions beyond, which the fancy spreads out illimitably beneath your feet. Apart from the sublime emotions of such a scene, from such a spot, the sense of danger is enlivened when you discover that the mountain rises erect from a base seemingly quite too slender for its support, while an awful fissure divides the mass from top to bottom, detaching an immense mass, that threatens momentously to go down in thunder upon the unconscious valley. The Head of Caesar, or the Iawa, is in some peril of serious abrasion, if not demolition, in the natural progress of events.

But Pendleton is the district of South Carolina most affluent in curiosities of this description. The Table Rock is one of the wonders of the Appalachian range. It rears its colossal front of granite—an isolated mass, perpendicular as a wall—more than eleven hundred feet in height, with a naked face of more than six hundred feet. The precipice is on the eastern side. It is ascended, on this side, by means of a ladder or steps of wood, fastened with iron clamps to the stone, and with several stagings compassing the perpendicular height. You literally hang in air. You look down, with a shudder, upon the awful chasm a thousand feet below. Your ladder shakes—its steps are in decay—occasionally one has disappeared—and your heart sinks momentarily, rendering necessary the encouragements of your guide. The great black wall glistens with the descending streams, which the sun coins into brilliants as fast as they scatter into spray. Go below—look up—and your soul rises with the majesty of prayer.

GEORGIA SCENES AND SPRINGS.

Thus health, youth, beauty, taste and art, attended by song and sunshine, walk the faces of her mountains, and group themselves joyously about her fountains and her streams. Madison Springs are deservedly famous in the regards of Georgia. A fine house, well kept, and crowded usually with excellent company, makes it easy to forget Newport and Saratoga. It would task a more fruitful pen than ours to describe the variety of influences which serve to beguile the thousands who seek this place of resort, and forget the progress of time in the unceasing round of their enjoyments. The

ball, the *pic-nic*, the *fête champêtre*, the *soirée*, the *tableaux vivans*, nightly, render life a charming illusion, as well for heart as fancy; and if the eye is permitted to see the dropping of the sands in the hour-glass, they are of gold and amber as they flow. The beauty of the wings of time, in this region, makes one heedless of his flight. Here was the best society in Georgia. Hither came her selectest circles. You might meet at the same moment the graveat signors of the State, dignified sages of the long robe, yielding themselves to the fascinations of the most piquant of its fashionables; the stern man of public cares, revelling in the gardens of Armida, under the grateful despotism of the Faery Queen. Nor is Madison's Springs alone. It is only one of many places of like attraction, which, as our purpose is not a catalogue, we need not particularize. If the reader is curious, let him look to the second work in our rubric, the "Georgia Illustrated," which is a beautiful specimen of the arts in the South. Here he will find full and interesting details of much that is conspicuous in the resources and scenery of our lively and lovely sister. The volume of Mr. Lannan will also supply him with much information in respect to her scenery and characteristics. He gives sketches of Dahlonega, a region of equal health and beauty, to which the route of travel last season did not sufficiently incline—of the valley of Nagoochie, Mount Yonah, Clarksville—the cascade of Toccoah, and the cataract of Tallulah.

2.—PROGRESS OF TEXAS.

Every day's accounts from this now flourishing centre of south-western emigration increase in interest. The California reaction is being felt in its favor, and so rapid is the growth of population, that in ten years Texas will be among the first of the Southern States. The emigrants are of an enterprising class, intelligent, and in good circumstances. Many have held leading positions in society and in politics in the old States. Whatever may have been our views upon the *Ten Million* purchase, there can be no doubt such a purse, in liquidating the State indebtedness, and in promoting, as we hope it will, internal improvements, must give a new life to the commonwealth. We have published many papers in our volumes showing the agricultural facilities, especially in sugar and cotton, of this State, and have several others promised. We beg our friends there to give us elaborate communications upon any matters which may pertain to their advancement.

The papers speak in encouraging terms of the growth of GALVESTON and HOUSTON.

According to the uniform testimony of all, Houston was never in a more prosperous condition than at the present time. A large amount of business has been done there during the past two months. The streets are represented as continually crowded with wagons, and the side-walks with bales of goods passing incessantly from the stores to the wagons. Some of the accounts given of the amount of sales, especially by the house of Rice & Nichols, would seem almost incredible. We are glad to hear of this high degree of commercial prosperity of our neighboring city, for we consider it a true exponent of the increasing wealth and agricultural productions of the country. It is true, the long protracted drought has greatly favored Houston, serving to concentrate at that point much more than the usual proportion of the country trade, and to diminish the trade at this place nearly in the same ratio. Still there has been sold in Galveston a very large amount of merchandize, though under great disadvantages. But the trade here has been confined principally to our heavier houses, and has partaken of the character of a wholesale business more than in former years."

MATAGORDA, which is in the heart of a rich agricultural region, also flourishes.

Buildings are springing up in every direction, as it were with the touch of a magician's wand, and we can scarcely turn our eyes in any direction, that we do not see evident tokens of the spirit of enterprise afloat. There have already, within the past year, been erected several elegant buildings, which would do credit to a more aristocratic city than our own, with several others in the course of erection; among the latter of which is a spacious and beautiful hotel, by our friend J. W. McCamly, Esq. From its pretty location, healthful position, and many advantages possessed as a residence as well as commercial emporium, Matagorda promises at no distant day to become one of the largest and prettiest towns in Texas. Situated in the midst of a large planing district, unsurpassed for the great staple products of the South, her commercial inducements must secure to her a permanent prosperity, which the fluctuations of trade and spirit of competition cannot easily subvert. Our citizens seem to be fully aroused to these truths, and the gloom and doubt which for years past hung over their minds on this question, have been fully and finally dispelled, and an invigorating spirit is predominant throughout. Upon the whole, our auspices are highly encouraging."

The culture of the vine begins now to attract attention. The imported grapes, it is said, will all rot, but the native will make the finest wines.

"I have collected *twelve* kinds of wild grapes which surpass the imported in sweetness, durability and productiveness. Their cultivation is easy, and the scaffolding cheap. The vines readily embrace and entwine around the trees and bushes for their support. They are divided into two classes—the summer and fall grapes—and yield fresh, ripe fruit from the first of June to the last of November. They are of all colors. Three hundred square feet of surface will yield four whiskey-barrels of round grapes for market, or sixty gallons of wine, with six gallons of the best brandy.

"In scaffolding the vineyard with trellises 7 feet high, 100 feet long, and 10 feet apart, half an acre will be covered by ten trellises. Every 30 feet long of trellis will give a surface of three hundred square feet, producing four barrels of round grapes, as stated before. Or 100 feet of trellis will yield 13 barrels; and 10 trellises of the same length, 130 barrels, or 520 bushels of grapes for market, or 1,950 gallons of wine and 60 gallons of brandy. The produce, therefore, of half an acre, will be—

530 bushels of grapes, which, at \$5 per bushel, will give.....	\$2,600
If made into wine, the result will be,	
1,950 gallons of wine, at \$1 per gallon.....	1,950
The brandy, 60 gallons, at \$2 per gallon.....	120
Total.....	\$2,070"

3.—REPORTS OF THE FEDERAL DEPARTMENT.

We present, as worthy of preservation for future reference, digests of the late annual reports emanating from the Executive Department of our government, and regret that we have not more space to bestow upon them.

THE TREASURY.

Balance in Treasury 1st July, 1850, \$6,604,544 49; Receipts (estimated) of year to June 30, 1851, including old balance, \$54,732,394 49; Expenditures, \$5,385,597 50 Balance on hand, \$450,896 99; Estimated receipts to June 30, 1851, \$47,258,936 99; Expenses, \$48,124,993 12; Deficit, 1st July, 1852, \$865,996 19, exclusive of Texan Boundary stock.

Mr. Corwin makes the war alone responsible for the enormous expenditure. For seven years previous to it, the expenses were \$149,660,345 52, and for the next seven years, \$294,807,407 95. Expenses chargeable directly to the war, including

territory purchased, and exclusive of numerous claims not presented, \$217,175,575 89.

Much space is devoted to frauds upon the revenue, growing out of the valuation system now adopted, which, with all its defects, we fear is the best practical system. The kind and character of frauds attempted are too familiar to need any mention.

Mr. Corwin discusses again the old *balance of trade* doctrine, and calls up the phantom which has frightened for centuries past certain statesmen from their property, and which, it seems, with all the labors of the economists, has only been "scotched, not killed." He anticipates an importation during the coming year of \$250,000,000, against an exportation not exceeding \$152,000,000—an alarming *balance*, and recommends the following changes in the tariff:

1. A change in the present ad valorem system, which should impose specific duties upon all articles to which such duties may be safely applied, with home valuations upon all such as are necessarily subject to ad valorem rates.

2. If the principle of specific duties shall not be adopted, that the home valuation, instead of the foreign, should then be applied to all imports subject to ad valorem duties.

3. If neither of the foregoing changes shall be thought proper, then it is deemed highly necessary that the present rate of duties should be increased on a great variety of articles, which it will be found could bear such increase with the most salutary effects upon both trade and revenue.

A corps of traveling appraisers to visit the different ports is recommended, and also that the time allowed in stores be extended to three years, with the privilege of re-export without duties, etc.

THE NAVY.

The Secretary says that our flag has been respected on every sea, and that the interests of commerce have been secure under its protection. The Navy consists of 7 ships of the line, 1 razee, 12 frigates, 21 sloops of war, 4 brigs, 2 schooners, 5 steam frigates, 3 steamers of the first class, 6 steamers of less than first class, and 5 store ships. The ships in commission are, 1 razee, 6 frigates, 15 sloops of war, 4 brigs, 2 schooners, (coast survey,) 2 steam frigates, 1 steamer of the first class, 3 less than first class, 3 ships of the line as receiving ships, 1 steamer do., and 1 sloop do. Four ships of the line and two frigates are on the stocks in process of construction, but the work suspended. Besides these, there are the mail steamships on the New-York and Liverpool, and New-York and Chagres lines, liable to naval duty in case of necessity.

The Secretary notices the improvements going on in the Navy Yards in Philadelphia and other places; states that he has invited proposals for the construction of a Dry Dock in the Pacific; says that the stores on hand in the various yards amount to \$6,500,000 in value; and discusses the question of reducing the number of yards, which he declines recommending at present, and depending on private contracts for the construction of ships.

The existing *personnel* of the Navy embraces 68 captains, 97 commanders, 327 lieutenants, 62 surgeons, 37 passed assistant surgeons, 43 assistant surgeons, 64 pursers, 24 chaplains, 12 professors of mathematics, 11 masters in the line of promotion, 464 passed and other midshipmen, and 7,500 petty officers, seamen, landsmen, boys, etc. The Secretary says that this system of officers is unshapely and disproportioned, there being a great disparity between the head and the subordinate parts, and he recommends a reduction in the three higher grades. The report discusses a variety of other questions respecting the organization and distribution of the service; all of which are worthy of attention, but can only be properly appreciated by a reference to the report.

The vessels of the Navy are distributed into six different squadrons. 1. The *Home* squadron, Com. Parker, operating from the Banks of Newfoundland to the mouth of the Amazon river. The principal service performed by this squadron during the past year was the preventing of the invasion of Cuba. 2. The *Pacific* squadron, Com. Mc'Cauley, three vessels of which are cruising between Cape Horn and Panama, and the rest north of the Equator. 3. The *Brazilian* squadron, Com. McKeever, cruises from the mouth of the Amazon to Cape Horn, and occasionally to the African const, has been engaged in suppressing the slave trade, and the protection of our rights in South America. 4. The *Mediterranean* squadron, Com. Morgan, is actively engaged in the various ports of the Mediterranean Sea. 5. The squadron on the coast of Africa, Com. Gregory, is engaged in breaking up the slave trade. 6. The *East India and China* squadron, Com. Geisinger, seems to be looking out for the purpose of establishing commercial intercourse with the Asiatics.

THE POST OFFICE.

The number of mail routes within the United States, at the end of June last, is 5590, extending over 178,672 miles, and employing 4760 contractors. The annual transportation of the mails on these routes was 16,541,423, at an annual cost of \$2,724,426, making the average cost about five cents and eight and a half mills per mile. The increase of the number of inland mail routes during the year was 649, extending over 10,939 miles, at an increased cost of \$342,440. On the last of June there were five foreign mail routes, on an aggregate length of 15,079 miles, and involving a Government

expenditure of \$264,506, exclusive of the cost of mail messengers and agents, amounting to \$107,042. The number of postmasters appointed during the year was 6318, of whom 2600 were appointed to supply resignations, 233 to supply vacancies by death, 262 by reason of change of the sites of the offices, 1444 on account of removals, 1919 to fill new offices. The whole number of post offices in the country was 18,417. During the year, 1792 have been established, and 309 discontinued. The gross revenue of the Department for the year was \$5,552,971 48, of which \$4,575,663 86 accrued from letters. The expenses were \$5,213,053 42, leaving an excess in favor of the Department of \$340,018 05, and making all of its available funds \$1,132,046 82. The expenses for mail contracts have increased in all sections of the country, but particularly in the West. The increase of income, from the receipts of postage, was 11,27-100 per cent; for 1848 was 7,43-100 per cent; for 1849 was 14-20-100 per cent; for 1850 was 14 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. It is estimated that the increase for the next year will be at least 11 per cent, and that the excess of the receipts over the expenditures will be \$146,806 28. Sixteen mail steamers are in service in maintaining the communication between the Atlantic and the Pacific. The Secretary recommends that measures should be taken to regulate the mail service with the West Indies and South America, and to systematize the service of California and Oregon. He recommends a reduction of the inland letter postage to a uniform rate of three cents, pre-paid, and five cents not pre-paid, and that the Postmaster General be empowered to make a further reduction to two cents, whenever, after the present proposed reductions, the revenues of the Department shall have exceeded its expenditure for two consecutive years, five per cent. He also recommends that a reduction to twenty cents be made on correspondence to and from the Pacific coast, South America, the Eastern continent and its islands, and points beyond either, and to ten cents on all other sea-going letters, except when the rates shall be otherwise fixed by postal treaties. He recommends a reduction on the postage of newspapers sent out of the States to one cent, and also a reduction upon pamphlets, periodicals, &c. These reductions, he calculates, will diminish the revenues of the Department for three or four years, and the deficit must be met by the surplus used in the hands of the Department, and by appropriations by Congress. He thinks the franking privilege should be retained, but that the Department should be paid from the Treasury for the transmission of all free matter.

THE WAR OFFICE.

The aggregate strength of the army, as at present established by law, is 12,329 officers and men. It is estimated that the number

of men actually in service and fit for duty, from deaths, discharges, desertions, sickness and other casualties, falls short of the legal organization on an average of from 30 to 40 per cent.; so that the above number would present an effective force of only from 8,400 to 8,700 men. Of the whole number, 7,796 are stationed in, or are under orders for Texas, New Mexico, California, and Oregon; leaving only 4,530 in all the rest of the States and Territories.

The Secretary urges the necessity of employing a cavalry force to curb the mounted Indians of Texas and New Mexico; and suggests the adoption of some system, dictated equally by policy and humanity, for reclaiming the whole unfortunate race, by inducing them to abandon their wandering and predatory life, to live in villages, and resort to agricultural pursuits for subsistence. The statement of the enormous cost of transporting pork and flour for the use of the troops in New Mexico, affords a strong evidence of the benefit which the republic would derive, in a mere pecuniary light, from restoring peace and security to the herdman and husbandman of a territory, "a large portion of which is susceptible of producing crops of grain, and nearly all of which is well adapted to grazing."

PUBLIC LANDS.

The Report of the Commissioners of the General Land Office, not yet published, contains full and interesting details respecting the public domain. We learn from the Washington Republic that the whole quantity of lands sold and disposed of during the year 1848, including that located by military bounties, State selections, &c., was 4,933,009 acres, amounting, at \$1.25 per acre, to \$6,428,435. For 1845, 5,184,410 acres were disposed of in like manner, amounting at the same rate, to \$6,575,625. And for three quarters of 1850, exclusive of the bounty locations not yet returned for the third quarter, 2,815,366 acres were disposed of, amounting, at the rate stated, to \$3,562,041.

A most valuable and interesting item in the report, is the statement showing the area and cost of the public lands and revenue derived from them.

From that statement, it appears that the whole area of the public lands exclusive of those in Oregon, California, New Mexico, Utah, the Indian and Nebraska Territories, was 424,103,750 acres. That of these about one-fourth have been sold for the sum of \$135,339,092, while the whole cost of every kind to the Government, including the amount paid to France for Louisiana, to Spain for the Floridas, and for the extinguishment of the Indian title, was \$74,937,879, making the net profit to the Government \$60,381,913, or an average of nearly one and a quarter millions of dollars annually for the last fifty years.

Nearly the same amount has been granted

in bounties, for works of internal improvement, &c.

It further appears, that the average cost of the public lands, including the purchase, extinguishing the Indian title, surveying, selling, and managing, &c., is only 21 4-5 cents per acre; while for each acre the Government receives \$1 25 per acre—making a net profit of \$103 1-5 cents per acre.

THE HOME OFFICE.

The estimates for the various branches of the public service within the jurisdiction of this Department, for the approaching year, reach the large amount of \$7,132,043 47; being an excess over the estimates for the current year of \$1,728,670 63. The increase arises principally from the enlarged expense of Indian affairs and the pension list; for which the estimates are respectively, \$1,441,472 66 and \$2,644,726 31.

The number of claims for warrants under the late bounty land laws, up to Nov. 5th, was 9,418, and it is rapidly increasing. The whole number of persons who, if living, would be entitled to the benefit of the law, the Secretary says would exceed half a million; and he estimates that the number of claimants will be about 250,000.

Of the whole lands there were disposed of 5,184,410.91 acres; of which 1,390,902 77 were sold, and 3,403,520.00 located on bounty land warrants. For the three quarters of 1850, the quantity disposed of has been 2,815,366.42 acres; 869,682.32 sold, and 1,520,120.00 located on warrants.

The Secretary urges the importance of a national highway to the Pacific, within our own territory, from the valley of the Mississippi to the western coast, and the necessity of obtaining full and accurate information as to the shortest and best route, having reference not only to distance, but also to the soil, climate, and adaptation to agricultural purposes of the intermediate country.

He renews the recommendation of his predecessor for the establishment of an agricultural bureau, and advises the institution of a model farm at Mount Vernon, "whose soil was once tilled by the hands, and is now consecrated by the dust, of the Father of his Country."

4.—POPULATION OF THE STATES, 1850— CONTRAST OF THE NORTH AND THE SOUTH.

As soon as the census returns are complete, we shall make many abstracts from them, and present to our readers a variety of interesting information, relating to the population and resources of the country. In the meanwhile we give the following as the returns of population in a few states. The state of Georgia has since been ascertained

to reach 1,000,000 against about 600,000 in 1840:

	1860.	1840.	Increase.
Minnesota.....	6,139..	(new.) ..	6,139
Arkansas (St. cens.)	198,706..	97,574..	101,292
South Carolina...	639,099..	594,308..	44,791
Rhode Island.....	147,543..	108,736..	38,713
Indiana.....	1,250,000..	658,886..	591,114
Wisconsin.....	305,191..	30,752..	264,369
Ohio.....	2,150,000..	1,519,167..	630,833
North Carolina...	850,900..	753,419..	96,581
Massachusetts....	1,000,000..	779,828..	220,772
Missouri.....	672,000..	383,702..	288,998
Pennsylvania.....	2,400,000..	1,734,033..	675,967
Maine.....	583,026..	501,736..	81,290
Connecticut.....	375,000..	310,015..	64,985
Vermont.....	312,656..	291,498..	21,158
Virginia.....	1,400,000..	1,239,797..	60,203
Kentucky.....	972,606..	779,828..	192,788
Utah.....	20,000..	(new) ..	20,000
California.....	200,000..	(new) ..	200,000
Oregon.....	10,000..	(new) ..	10,000
District Columbia.	54,000..	43,712..	10,288

13,545,986.. 9,817,235

Remarking upon the results which have thus far been given, the Mobile Tribune indulges some reflections which are elevated and sound. They correspond with opinions we have frequently expressed in our Review, and we are but too happy to extract them at large.

One of the most striking facts of the times is the great increase in the population of Georgia, as denoted by the recent census. It exceeds that of any state in the Union, and has been since 1840, forty-five per centum.

We should like to know exactly the cause of this great change. Whether it is a cause or a consequence of diversified industrial pursuits, or whether it results from the central situation of the state, would be something which it would be agreeable to know.

One thing, however, it does prove, namely, that slave institutions are not necessarily anti-progressive in their effects on wealth and population. Down-east the "philanthropists," with averted eyes and much self-complacency, declare that slavery is antagonistic to all progress, material as well as moral; that the North owes its augmented population to its levelling system—according to the theory of which, nobody is better than any other body.

We are willing to subscribe to this opinion, but also doubt whether its boasted increase is really progression. Are there less crime and misery and more morality and comfort in the North than there were twenty years ago?—Does the increase of its aggregate wealth and population denote a more general diffusion of individual plenty; more happiness; a higher refinement, and a superior religious and moral tone of public sentiment? No man can doubt that in these things the North has retrograded.

Let us come South, and apply this test to its people, and the result will indicate a most

striking change towards improvement. Religion is more generally respected and practised among us than it was twenty years ago; education is more diffused; violence and crime are much less common; refinement has grown into familiarity in places hitherto rude and almost barbarous. Want—no such thing is known among us. We have no paupers—no beggars, except the few who have been sent to some of our seaport towns by importation. No man is destitute—no true manhood among us is put to shifts which shock its self-respect and degrade it. Every man stands up independently, a true man, not ground down to the lowest self-abasement by the “progress” which is the boast, and to us the evil, of many other communities.

For our own part, we have no sort of confidence in the gauge of progress laid down generally by the statists. We would rather, if the South had no motive for self-protection in making itself numerically strong in the confederacy, that the population of our states should rather fall behind their present rate of progress. Running hand in hand with this “progress,” we see want and vice and the elements which will work its ruin. In the South we see real progress in every thing, and particularly in those higher qualities which are as well the honor of individuals as of aggregated people. We are content with this, and would not exchange it for all the overgrown cities and heated manufacturing districts that are possessed by New and old England.

What is called national greatness is a great human fallacy. The greatness, in the ordinary acceptance of the word, of states, is acquired by the degradation of the mass of their individual citizens. How great is Russia! and how insignificant is the little Republic of San Marino! Yet who would exchange the happiness of the people of the one for that of the serfs of the other? As an individual man, is it a better thing for me that the state should have ten millions of people, half of whom are constantly on the verge of want, than one million, all of whom are filled with plenty? Nations, as all history shows, are always greatest—in the ordinary phrase—when they are verging towards decay. Rome was never so full of misery as when her name was a signal of terror throughout the world. The greatness of the state was the result of the debasement of the individuals who composed it. England is somewhat like Rome, but, in poverty, as nine-tenths of its people are, who would not prefer the home of a Switzer to all the glory which is reflected by the power of the nation on her poor, poverty-stricken individual subjects?

5.—HOME EDUCATION AT THE SOUTH.

An important part of the reform which is now being preached on the house-tops in every part of the South, must be considered

the subject of *Home Education*. If the child be “father to the man,” it ought, assuredly, to be our care to protect him from influences which the man may hereafter deprecate. But what, after all, is the fact? We find throughout the Northern States a current of popular opinion, extending throughout all classes, gaining every day in intensity, attacking and dividing the churches, developing itself in literature, presiding over the press, discussed in the schools, argued in the forum, potent at the polls, amorous and inveterate in the national halls, threatening annihilation to the South, or if the other alternative be preferred, a violent disruption of the Federal Union; and it is just precisely into this hot-bed of political heresy and “higher law,” that we are hurrying our children, the moment they have assumed the *toga virilis*, if not much earlier, to be trained to the duties of manhood, the rights of republicanism, and the defences of their fire-sides, their altars and their homes. There they go, crowding Dartmouth and Harvard, and Brown and Yale, and Amherst and Middlebury, and Hamilton, —the sons of the men who have raised throughout all the South a storm they cannot still, and carried into Africa a war to be ended God only knows when.

This is *Southern consistency*, and it is thus that the North wisely laughs at our silly boastings, which end with the breath that utters them. *They make the songs*, and may well be indifferent if we have a part of the laws.* Granted that our institutions of learning are inferior in endowment and celebrity, and for argument, even inferior in scholastic attainments and merit, which last, if true, would make the humiliation of the South still greater, better would it be for us that our sons remained in honest ignorance and at the plough-handle, than that their plastic minds be imbued with doctrines subversive of their country’s peace and honor, and at war with the very fundamental principles upon which the whole superstructure of the society they find *at home* is based, and has been based through all the memories of their fathers before them! Would we poi-

* “Let me but make the songs (i. e., the literature) of a people,” says the wise man, “and I care not who shall have the making of their laws.”

son the fountain of its source when so many millions are to drink of it? Would we encourage *doubt* and *distrust* when, upon *faith* and *confidence*, under God, the salvation of generations to come must rest? Wiser that the Christian father train his son to theology at the feet of a Shaftesbury, or that the Protestant make a mission to St. Peter's, to be confirmed in the faith of the Reformers. It was on *his own altar* that Hamilcar swore the young Hannibal to an eternal war upon Roman aggression, and our British ancestors did not leave their work half done in settling the succession to the crown, by omitting to protect the infancy of their sovereigns from influences inimical to the religion and the liberties of the realm.

But it is not true that the South has not the means, even now, of educating her children in her own midst, to the highest achievements of scholarship and learning, though an immense field for improvement is still open before her. Is not the fame of her Legare, a *home graduate*, as wide as that of Everett? Who has surpassed her Preston and McDuffie in oratory, or her Elliott in science? Have her *home-taught* statesmen been other than proud ornaments of the nation, or is she always so secure from the perfidy and treachery that strikes the breast which afforded nourishment, that she care not whence the teachings of her statesmen be derived?

We raise then the cry of reform and *Home Education*, and pledge our work to the great service of urging upon the South the establishment and support of institutions of learning, which shall be second to none in America. We are a wealthy and a strong people, and have only to will great deeds to see them accomplished. *Begin the work to-day*. Henceforward the South will wean her children unnaturally no more—she will be as well the instructor as the parent—she will guide them to light, and knowledge, and *truth*, and find in that pious mission her own salvation.

To aid in this salutary reform, we will publish in our next (not having space at present), a list of the different institutions of learning, so far as we are enabled to procure them, in all of the Southern States. As the statistics are a year or two old, it is possible

there are many corrections to be made, and much to be added. Let our friends assist us to make it perfect. We would even go further, to chronicle the name of leading academies, so that throughout all the limits of our States it may be known what we are doing, and what we are capable of doing, and that no one may have the justification of ignorance in his defence. It is our wish that The Review shall contain a permanent record of Southern schools and colleges,—and education movements, in general.

6.—PUBLIC LANDS AT THE SOUTH.

We have more than once of late declared our conviction, that the national domain would become the prize of political factions and parties, and be introduced among the other spoils to be contended for every four years on the great Presidential battle-field. "Free land" and a farm to any one that will have it, will become as popular watch-cries 'among us as free soil, or as *liberté, égalité, fraternité*, among the red republicans of Paris. *La propriété c'est la volonté*, will be a material step in the same progression, and men shall hear, before the century is out, more than faint mutterings of it. We sow the storm to reap the whirlwind.

A writer in the New-York Commercial Advertiser, admits the fact, that throughout all the *free* states the sentiment of "free land" is becoming immensely popular, and with great candor gives the reason of it, and the great end which is to be consummated.

States.	Area of States in acres.	Owned by States.	Owned by Gen. Government.
Missouri	43,123,200	14,912,190	28,911,010
Alabama	32,462,080	15,214,048	17,248,032
Mississippi	30,174,080	18,480,377	11,693,703
Louisiana	29,715,240	8,790,293	20,925,558
Arkansas	33,406,720	6,149,755	27,256,765
Florida	37,931,520	4,414,255	33,817,265
Aggregate	206,813,240	67,960,907	139,853,333
Area of the six slave-holding States		206,913,240	
Owned thereof by the General Government			139,853,333
Owned by the States in their State capacity			67,960,907

Thus, in the slave States the General Government still holds the proprietary of 139,913,240 acres. These are to be colonized by *northern free-soilers*, to whom every facility is to be granted, in order that they may soon acquire the majority in each, control its legis.

lution, and consign slavery to the tomb of the Capulets!

The population of the States alluded to, in 1790, and that in 1840, shows an increase so trifling, compared with that of the Northern States of the Union, that it would require five hundred years for the States themselves to occupy the unemployed lands with a population as dense as that of any of the rural districts of Great Britain. Unable or indisposed to purchase the domain themselves, (and a Northern speculator finds his prejudices superior to his interests in this respect,) the lands must remain in their primitive wastes, or become the homes of the worthy settler, whose repugnance to slavery need not prevent him from accepting as a gratuity that in which he is unwilling to invest capital. Now look at the consequences to the States respectively. The influx of this species of population would change the tone of the present minority to a great majority, and the institution of slavery would be abolished in twenty years. For instance, Arkansas contains 33,406,720 square acres of territory; of this the State owns only 6,149,755 acres, and the General Government 27,256,765 acres. Her population now is 97,574. Who will doubt that if a donation bill were passed at the present session, in five years Arkansas would contain 200,000 free-soilers to outvote this minority of 97,574? Now let us look at the present population of these six States, the slave-holding increase, according to the landed capacity of the State, and the free-soil increase, according to the area allowed by the Government domain.

Present population exclusive of slaves, 1,922,121

Capacity for increase	Stats.	Gen. Government.
at the rate of 100 to the square mile....	10,022,000	

Capacity for increase	21,851,900
at same rate.....	21,851,900

"Or double the shareholding increase; and while the latter are multiplying their hundreds, the former will be multiplying their thousands."

7.—LONGEVITY OF THE NEGRO NORTH AND SOUTH.

An intelligent and able friend in New-England writes us as follows:

"I have an impression, founded, it is true, upon limited observations, that the free negro is shorter lived, enjoys less vital force, and is more immoral than the slave, or the whites; and if we desired to exterminate the race, one means of doing it would be to set them at liberty. It would give me great pleasure if I had a sufficient number of facts to discuss this matter as a fact. Could they be obtained if proper inquiries were instituted? If so, at a proper time I would prepare a paper for you. I allude to this matter now as a private affair, but I should like to correspond with some one competent to afford me the information I desire."

We suggest to our friend the name of Dr.

J. C. Nott, of Mobile, as one which has connected itself for several years with these investigations. Dr. Nott wrote an article in our Review upon the subject, and has incorporated many facts in his volume upon the *Races of Men*. We should be pleased to occupy our pages at all times with the discussion. It is in the power of gentlemen at the North to give as much light if they will. It has ever been a fault with the Massachusetts returns, as well as the statistics of other States at the North, that they do not separate the whites from the blacks, and thus, with all their minuteness, they give us but little light. At the South the fault is, that we neglect the statistics of both races.

Dr. E. M. Pendleton, of Sparta, Georgia, thus expresses himself in the March (1851) number of the *Medical Journal of New-Orleans*—his paper being intended for our friend Fenner's *Southern Medical Reports*:

"This table proves beyond doubt, that the mulatto is much shorter lived than either of the unmixed races. Thus, only four in one thousand reach seventy years, to 16.1 of the black, and 22.6 of the white. A similar ratio is maintained throughout. It is true, that the disparity may be somewhat greater, owing to the short period of time since the two races have intermixed, making individual cases of longevity among the mulattoes rarer than it might otherwise be; but apart from the exhibit of this table, it has become almost proverbial among physicians, that the mulatto is more subject to certain forms of incurable disease, and succumbs more rapidly to the invasion of others, than either of the pure races. But it seems that while there are many more centenarians among the blacks than the whites, they are not, taken as a whole, so long lived. Whether this is owing to a critical period in the life of the negro, as with the female, or that the centenarians are the last of the native Africans who were brought to this country, and have not felt the blighting effects of civilization which has shortened the lives of their degenerate sons, I cannot say, but am rather disposed to take the last as the most philosophical view. If this be true, we may expect, in a few more years, that extreme cases of longevity will predominate among the whites."

8.—ENTERPRISES OF NEW-ORLEANS.

Under our Commercial head in Feb. Number we chronicled a movement among us for the establishment of a line of steamers to Liverpool; and the notice had hardly been handed to the printer before the daily press came out with a kindred announcement of a line from *New-Orleans to New-York*. This

must, indeed, be an age of improvement, when the dry bones of New-Orleans can be shaken, and the spirit of enterprise be found brooding over even her stagnant pools. Yet we have too little faith to be led away by mere "resolutions," and have learned from experience to distrust profession. A city which cannot raise, without Herculean efforts and stirring public appeals, the comparatively insignificant sum, for at the moment we write, it is not yet done, which shall cause to rise from its ruins the glory of her prime, the *St. Charles*; which has subscribed but a few hundred dollars to the Jackson railroad, and some thousands, we have not learned how few, to the Tehuantepec route; which has no manufactures; is connected with the North by a mail, which fails more times than it comes through, and for several days together; which is broken up into rival governments, with great taxation and small improvements; such a city will find it very hard to inspire the world with any great hopes of its early amendment. God grant that even this seeming impossibility may be *conquered*.

The following are the particulars of the

STEAM-SHIP LINE.

A meeting of the subscribers of the New-Orleans and New-York steamers, was convened at the counting room of *Mesars. Maunsel, White & Co.*, on Saturday evening, 25th inst.

On motion, Horace C. Cammack, Esq., was appointed President, and H. G. Heart, Secretary.

Resolved, That a committee of five be appointed by the Chair to make rules and regulations for the government of the Association, and receive the notes of the subscribers for the instalments as submitted, and they be authorized to have the contracts entered into by the agent in New-York.

Resolved, That due notice shall be given of all meetings of the subscribers to the Association. That five shall form a quorum for the transaction of business.

Resolved, That the Association shall be known as the New-Orleans and New-York Steam-ship Line.

Resolved, That a committee of three be appointed by the Chair, to have the few remaining shares subscribed for in the first steamer, and open books of subscription for the second steamer.

Resolved, That at the next meeting, or as soon as practicable, an election shall be entered into for five Directors, to manage with the agents the affairs of the Association. They shall be elected by ballot, each share in person, or by proxy, being entitled to one vote.

RE-BUILDING OF THE ST. CHARLES.

This classic, proud and massive structure, —an ornament to American architecture, which gave a character to the place it embellished, like that of the Vatican or St. Peter's, or St. Paul's, being now a mass of huge and misshaped ruins, much public sentiment had been elicited, and several meetings of the citizens have determined upon its re-construction. But capitalists, though they may shed *tears*, place a different value upon *doubloons*, as is evinced by their tardy and interrupted subscriptions; and if the *sentiment* be allowed to die, we fear the area of the St. Charles will, in the event, be covered by a series of "respectable bar-rooms" and *ten pin alleys*; or, if *Phoenix* come again from the ashes, it will be such a different *Phoenix*, that they who look upon it, like the Hebrew fathers who gazed upon the Temple of Jerusalem, after its rebuilding, and remembered the glories of the old structure, now lost and gone forever, will "lift up their eyes and weep!"

The following are the report and resolutions of the committee:—

The committee appointed on the 20th inst., to ascertain upon what terms the site, foundation, &c., of the St. Charles Hotel can be procured—

Your committee respectfully report, that they have conferred with the principal holders of stock in the St. Charles Hotel Company, who have offered to sell the whole number of outstanding shares (say 12,375) at five dollars per share, as per annexed proposition received from them.

This will (if accepted) put us in possession of a good title to the lot and foundations, and also the charter of the Company, subject only to the mortgage on the lot of \$94,000, which matures in May, 1855.

Believing that the acceptance of this proposition will be the most feasible plan for carrying out the great object of this meeting, the speedy re-erection of the stately St. Charles Hotel, your committee respectfully offer the following resolutions:—

1st. *Resolved*, That the chairman appoint a committee of three, to inform the present stockholders that their proposition is accepted, on condition that a sufficient amount of stock is subscribed to carry out the objects of this meeting, and that *all* the present shareholders concur.

2d. *Resolved*, That the chairman appoint a committee of fifty, to solicit subscription for fifteen thousand shares of the stock of the St. Charles Hotel Company at \$25, payable \$5 cash, \$5 in a note at two months, \$5 in a note at four months, \$5 in a note at nine

months, and the remaining \$5 to be subject to the call of the directors thereafter.

3d. *Resolved*, That so soon as the committee have their subscriptions filled up to 15,000 shares, they shall call a meeting of the subscribers thereto, for the purpose of consummating the arrangement with the present stockholders, and taking such steps as may be necessary for the erection of the Hotel.

9.—*PIAT JUSTITIA, RUAT COLUM.*

Our neighbor of the *N. O. Bulletin*, in his editorial columns, last month, incorporated the following sentiments, for which we honor him. Would that such liberality were more frequent from the press!

Charleston furnishes another striking evidence of this spirit of enterprise and progress, which is so generally animating all the Atlantic cities. Engrossed as are the people of South Carolina, and as they have been, since 1832, in their own peculiar politics, they have not neglected the interest of their seaport.

We will, *en passant*, instance as proof of this devotion to the interest of their metropolis, these two facts: The interior of Carolina is connected with Charleston by 271 miles of railroad, and Charleston is connected *outwardly*, by lines of steamships, with New-York, Philadelphia, (or was a short time since) Wilmington, and Savannah, and will be in a few months, as we have already taken occasion to notice, with Liverpool.

Charleston is the Mecca of every Carolinian; if he does not, as a part of his religion, turn his face towards it in his devotion, it is the first and absorbing object of his love and pride. This is a noble trait in a Carolinian; we may abhor his politics, but we must honor and respect his love for his State. It is a principle (for with every citizen of South Carolina, the attachment to his State is not an evanescent passion, but a principle deserving all praise and imitation. It is, moreover, a principle that often checks us when we feel disposed to comment with harshness upon the extravagant, ideal and fallacious views which have obscured the judgment of their public men, and led them to the commission of many follies, upon the question of their federal relations. Carolina is factious and revolutionizing, and yet we fully believe that she will never be down to the extremity of separating from her sister States, for she well knows, maugre all the declarations of her politicians, that secession will involve her in irretrievable ruin. But however this may be, should she pursue the foolish part, and cut loose from the Union, she will adopt this extreme measure from the convictions that the honor and interest of the State demand the sacrifice.

10.—*PLACE D'ARMES—NEW-ORLEANS.*

This is really a most imposing public square, and, when completed, will be one of the finest in the Union. On either side, the elegant architectural structures of Madame Pontalba, give a bold trace of modern life to that antique portion of the city. Then the new Cathedral, which is rearing its head so proudly in its view of the river! When the old structure was torn down many of the *ancient regime* of Orleans wept. It seemed even to us a profanation, for we remembered how it had affected us, when, a younger man than now, we first visited it, and noted in our diary a page—as thus:

The early dawn streamed faintly through the vaulted aisles of the old Cathedral which looks darkly and gloomily down upon the open area of the *Place d'Armes*. There is something stately and solemn in the mouldering walls of that old building. I have stood and gazed upon it as it stands there and tells of generations that are gone—the old Cathedral, with its massive proportions, its arches and its towers. Time has marked it strongly, and the race of yore who loved it most have gone now. Priest and populace—they have been changing and passing away—but there are worshipers yet around the altar, and the old Cathedral, in stern rebuke of human pride, is there still with its thousand hallowed memories.

* * * * * The girl heeds not the damps of the early morn. She has been taught to reverence the precincts, and in the freshness of youth and beauty, her pure spirit seeks a higher communion than with the things of earth. I have marked her footsteps upon the threshold of that high arch. She trips lightly onward, but with serious and composed features. Her tiny fingers dip in the consecrated element, and pass the rapid cross over her brow and her bosom. And whilst I look, two little boys and a girl, mere infants, with a black nurse, have entered. The children understand the mystic rite, and their little fingers are not idle with the sacred water. The old nurse has tottered along too—emaciated and haggard and on the verge of another world, she is not touched by the pomp and the ceremony. She marks not—heeds not the gathering crowd. I see her stand at the sacred basin with her eyes fixed upon the crucifix and the dim tapers that burn before it. I see her bow and her lips mutter, and her bosom heaves—she moves not now, and in that attitude I mark a decayed offspring of Time and Earth reaching upward in spirit to eternity and God.

* * * * This is the hour of Prayer. * * * * Not a breath rises above the solemn stillness of the hour. Kneeling in the deep recesses of that awful temple—

old men with whitened locks, vigorous manhood, youths, tender maidens and infancy—the sable offspring of benighted Africa mingled in the throng—kneeling there, of all ranks and conditions, of all climes and of all tongues—kneeling together in one solemn morning sacrifice in that vast cathedral.

* * * * * There may be error and delusion in all this—but God knows as I stand alone amongst these people—I, a *Protestant* and a stranger, with guilt and error and sin enough to atone for, whatever my faith—God knows I have a heart deeply touched with the scene, and a broken spirit which seeks for prayer, pure and fervent prayer, even with the *Catholic* in his Cathedral.

11.—RESOURCES OF LOUISIANA.

For the last time we publish in the Review a call we have made upon the people of the state, to aid us in preparing a volume we have in progress, which shall correctly exhibit our position and resources. No pains shall be spared to make it complete, but we must depend very much upon citizens for aid, in collecting information. Will not the editors of Louisiana all copy our call? We hope to make a large and valuable volume, and will, if possible, visit personally the greater portion of the state.

New Orleans, Jan. 6, 1851.

As I am engaged in collecting information with the view of preparing an elaborate work upon the resources, progress and development of the State of Louisiana, will you aid in making a call upon its citizens for any information, and for a liberal co-operation? Several valuable historical and statistical works have been carried to high perfection in this way. In every neighborhood there are men familiarly acquainted with everything that relates to it. I should be happy to record their notes and suggestions, addressed to me in this city. Every member of the Legislature is in possession of the circular I have sent out. It embraces, in all their minute divisions, the following heads:

1. Settlement and History of Parish, Indian Remains.
2. Biography of Remarkable Men.
3. Topography, Geology and Natural History.
4. Agriculture, Timber, Roads, Navigation, Value of Lands, Levees and Crevasses.
5. Disease and Health, Meteorology.
6. Population—its growth, classes, size of town, labor.
7. Education—schools, proportion educated, expense; Churches, etc.
8. Manufactures and Arts of Parish.
9. Commercial Statistics of Parish.
10. General Statistics—Society, Pauperism, Charities, Crime, Remarkable Physical Events, Climate, etc. etc.

I also desire to obtain knowledge of Old Manuscripts, Public or Private Records, Letters, Journals, Rare Old Books, Files of Newspapers, relating to the State. I will most cordially acknowledge in the work the aid I may obtain. J. D. B. DE BOW.

12.—THE AMERICAN UNION.

THIS is the title of an eloquent sermon delivered a few weeks ago in Philadelphia, by Dr. Henry H. Boardman, and published by request of a number of gentlemen. Among whom, we notice the names of Messrs. Dallas, Meredith, Ingersoll, etc.

The tone and spirit of this sermon are such as we have not often been treated with by the northern pulpit, and the withering rebuke which it administers to the fanatics of the North, should have a wide and deep influence, if anything could affect the minds of men so "hardened in transgression."

The exalted tribute which Dr. Boardman pays to the Union, as it was conceived and elaborated in the wisdom and patriotism of our fathers, and as it has achieved its almost miraculous triumphs in wealth, in power, and in noble deeds, meets with a ready and enthusiastic response from our own heart. We have loved and cherished the Union, and to preserve it in its integrity and its purity, has been the one-wide, deep, universal southern sentiment. Another, and a sentiment equally high and holy, actuates every true southern heart, and that is, to resist any change or encroachment upon such a Union. As high-minded men, we scorn all calculations of consequences. To resist tyranny and oppression is a law of God, higher than that of allegiance to principalities and powers. Like Brutus with his dagger at the breast of the enemy of his country's liberties, we may feel it was not Caesar that we loved less, but Rome more!

In our love for the Union, we will not consent to relinquish one tittle of our rights as sovereigns, or that high attribute of determining for ourselves, when these are endangered, and the true mode and measure of redress. The sneer which is often vouchsafed at the impotence of a single state, in resisting the mandates of imperial power, like that of the Union, is an argument addressed to fear, and we trust in God it will never be heard among us, while Pyn and Hampden, and Harry Vane and Elliott, are

held in consecrated memory. We quote here, as worthy of being graven on every heart, the lines of Sir Wm. Jones, which are seldom met with entire:

WHAT CONSTITUTES A STATE?

" What constitutes a state ?
 Not high-raised battlements or labored
 Thick wall, or moated gate ; [mound,
 Not cities proud, with spires and turrets
 [crowned ;
 Not bays and broad-armed ports,
 Where, laughing at the storm, rich navies
 Not starred and spangled courts, [ride ;
 Where, low-bred baseness wafts perfume to
 No : men, high-minded men, [pride ;
 With powers as far above dull brutes en-
 In forest brake or dew, [dued
 As beasts excel cold rocks or brambles rude :
 Men who their duties know,
 But know their rights, and knowing dare
 Prevent the long-armed blow, [maintain,
 And crush the tyrant while they read the
 These constitute a state. [chain :
 And sovereign law, that state's collected
 O'er thrones and globes elate, [will
 Sits Empress, crowning good, repressing ill ;
 Smir by her sacred frown,
 The fiend Discretion, like a vapor sinks,
 And e'en the all-dazzling crown
 Hides her faint rays, and at her bidding
 [shrinka."

But to return to Dr. Boardman's sermon, from which we shall make a few extracts.

FUGITIVE SLAVE LAW.

That a statute respecting fugitive slaves should form a part of this series of pacificatory measures, was a thing of course. One of the chief compromises of the Constitution itself relates to this very subject. The South would not come into the Union without some guarantee on this point, and the following section (Art. IV. Sect. 2) was adopted by the Convention—I believe unanimously. " No person held to service or labor in one State, under the laws thereof, escaping into another, shall, in consequence of any law or regulation therein, be discharged from such service or labor, but shall be delivered up on claim of the party to whom such service or labor may be due." A law was enacted under Washington's administration, and with his approval, to carry this provision of the Constitution into effect. This law had of late years been rendered nugatory in some of the States by local legislation, and it became necessary to replace it with another. This is the statute which is now exciting so much opposition, and the execution of which has been resisted with so much violence. These demonstrations, although professedly directed against some of the details of the act, are to a great extent levelled against its principle.

We do the party concerned in them no injustice in supposing that they would be equally hostile to any adequate law designed to effect the same object. In this view, one cannot but be struck with the flexible morality which can declaim fiercely about the inalienable rights of man, while it is trampling under its feet one of the most sacred covenants which ever bound a people together. There is no difference of opinion as to the meaning of the Constitutional provision on this subject. To that provision, in common with the others, our fathers assented, and we have assented. It is one of the terms of a compact into which we have as a people entered with one another ; and which is just as binding upon us as any other of its provisions. Our judgment may condemn it. It may be very revolting to our feelings. But this is nothing to the purpose. We are under no obligation to remain in a country which we believe to be governed by oppressive laws ; there is nothing to prevent our flying to any land which rejoices in a milder code, and a more rational liberty. But as long as we continue citizens of this Union, we must abide by its Constitution, and obey its laws. And we cannot consent to take lessons in ethics from those who deny this proposition. The first requisite we demand in a teacher of morals is, that he be a moral man himself. And when a covenant-breaker comes to expound to us our obligations, we feel disposed to decline his instructions, and to say to him—

" Your nickname, virtue; vice, you should have spoke ;
 For virtue's office never breaks men's troth."

NORTHERN ABOLITIONISTS.

The Northern abolitionists (I use the term in its technical sense), impressed, it would seem, with a conviction that their proper responsibilities, sectional and national, secular and spiritual, are not commensurate with their capacities, have volunteered to shoulder by much the heaviest portion of the obligations resting upon the Southern States. The South declines the proffered civility ; but they press their attentions. The South remonstrates, on the ground that the contemplated interference would be highly prejudicial to her tranquillity ; but her officious friends insist upon it as their right to help her manage her private affairs. The South at length puts herself in an attitude of resistance, and points to the solemn compact in the Constitution ; but they reply, with an air of triumph, that they are governed by a "higher law," and that under that law, it is not only their right, but their duty to take charge of her slaves. And what have they accomplished by this Quixotic generosity ? They have riveted the fetters of the slave. They have deterred at least three States, Maryland, Virginia, and Kentucky, from carrying out the plans of prospective emanci-

pation they were just entering upon when this outbreak of misguided philanthropy occurred at the North. They have scattered the seeds of discord and alienation broadcast through the Confederacy. In a word, protesting that they were the exclusive friends of the slave, they have taken him to their breasts with a hug which reminds one of the embrace of that terrific automaton of the "Virgin found in the dungeons of the "Holy Inquisition," which, clasping the victim in its arms, and pressing him to its bosom, transfixed him with a thousand concealed spikes and knife-blades. And their fitting auxiliaries in all this crusade against the South have been British emissaries; the subjects of that crown which, in the face of the remonstrances of some of the colonies, planted slavery in our soil, and fostered it into manhood, and which at this moment has millions of subjects at home, and in its colonies, who would be the gainers in physical comfort, and even in spiritual privilege, by exchanging places with our Southern slaves.

THE SOUTH'S POWER TO PRESERVE HER SLAVES.

The failure of all past efforts at the North to ameliorate the condition of the slave is not more palpable than is the certainty that the grand expedient now contemplated would prove equally abortive. For, suppose radicalism could achieve its purpose and split the Union to pieces, how would this help the slave? Does any man, not a tenant of a Lunatic Asylum, believe that disunion would mitigate the evils of Southern servitude? Would it bring about a relaxation of the laws which regulate it? Would it incline the planters to put books and pens into the hands of their slaves? Would it facilitate the flight of fugitives? Would it conciliate the various legislatures towards schemes of emancipation? No one is so infatuated as to affirm this. The most frantic abolitionists must be aware that the disruption of the Union would put a cup of gall and wormwood to a lips of every slave; that it would be the signal for the enactment of more stringent laws than have ever appeared upon the Southern Statute-books; and for the institution of a system of surveillance on every plantation and in every household, the rigor of which has no parallel in the records of American bondage. In the name, then, of three millions of slaves, we protest against all schemes for dissolving the Union. We believe that, terrible as such a catastrophe would be to the whites, it would be no less so to the blacks; that it would abridge their privileges, augment their burdens, and postpone by many years the period of their ultimate emancipation. And we should be criminally indifferent to their welfare, as well as treacherous to those sacred bonds which have hitherto united the North and the South in an honorable and affectionate brotherhood, if we could remain silent when sincere, but mistaken religionists, and unprincipled dema-

gogues, have well nigh precipitated the country into this frightful abyss. And we are all the more disposed to break silence, because we believe that, of the two classes of agitators just named, the latter has a great deal more to do with the present excitement than the former. There is, it is true, a settled conviction in the minds of the Northern people that slavery is a great evil, and there is an anxious desire to see the country rid of it. But, left to itself, this feeling is as still as it is strong and deep; and it never could have been lashed into the foaming surges which now break over the land, but through the systematic, crafty, and wicked exertions of political demagogues. There were men in the ancient republics, whose motto was,

"Better to reign in Hell, than serve in Heaven;" and they cared not what became of their country, so they were promoted.

13.—LEIGH HUNT.

The Autobiography of Leigh Hunt, with Reminiscences of Friends and Contemporaries. In two volumes. New-York: Harper & Brothers; 1850. New-Orleans: J. B. Steel.

We have only had sufficient leisure to read the first, and a portion of the second volume, of this very interesting book. We think we can recommend it as a very readable book, to those who are fond of that species of literature which amuses the mind in moments of relaxation from more severe labor. We may add, that it cannot be duly appreciated until we have doffed our boots, donned our dressing-gown, and fairly lighted our *Habanero*. Had not the author anticipated us, we would have indulged, at some length, in condemning the silliness and puerile vanity, which are usually displayed in works of this description. He entreats, however, that we do not censure him before we have read his *Preface*. As his opinions on the subject coincide with our own had we sufficient space we would give them entire. We can fully comprehend him when he says, that "he has lived long enough to discover that autobiography may not only be a very distreasing, but a very puzzling task, and to throw the writer into such doubts as to what he should, or should not say, as totally to confuse him." This is precisely the kind of difficulty that the critic finds in noticing the book before us. The

author shelters himself, however, behind the illustrious example of Alfieri, Goethe, and Chateaubriand—without seeming to remember that their autobiographies were posthumous publications. He might, with more propriety, have cited Rousseau and Lamartine, the former of whom has immortalized himself by his disgustingly-fascinating "Confessions," and the latter, by his "Confidential Disclosure," which are read with such rapture by love-sick ladies. In fact, we think that nothing but *vanity* or *money* (or, perhaps, both) could induce any one to make such an *exposé* of himself until his decease. There would be no danger of his incurring the imputation of cowardice, with which Dr. Johnson charged Bolin-broke, whom he said, "was afraid of the report of his own pop-gun, and hired another to fire it off after he was out of danger."

We do not make these remarks with a view to disparage our author, or his book, for, as we have said, it is really highly entertaining. He was intimate with all the literati of his day, and gives lively sketches of Byron, Shelley, Lamb, Coleridge, and a host of other wits and oddities, with whom he came in contact during a long and varied experience. He was distinguished some forty years ago as the author of several literary works, among which the *Indicator*, a series of essays, the *Story of Rimini*, founded upon an episode in Dante, and a political paper called the *Examiner*, are most conspicuous. He was indicted for libelling George IV., then Prince Regent, was convicted, and imprisoned for two years, and fined £1,000. His account of his confinement is one of the most affecting of his sketches. He says: "I enjoyed after all, such happy moments with my friends, even in prison, that in the midst of the beautiful climate which I afterward visited, I was sometimes in doubt whether I would not rather have been in jail than in Italy." He mentions an anecdote about Lord Bacon that we do not remember to have seen before, to wit: That his lordship was in the habit of riding out in his coach, bareheaded, while it was raining, exclaiming, "that he felt the spirit of the universe upon him."

His sketch of Lamb is graphic, and, we believe, a faithful portraiture.

Charles Lamb had a head worthy of Aristotle, with as fine a heart as ever beat in human bosom, and limbs very fragile to sustain it. His features were strongly, yet delicately, cut: he had a fine eye, as well as forehead; and no face carried in it greater marks of thought and feeling. It resembled that of Bacon, with less worldly vigor, and more sensibility. As his frame, so was his genius. It was fit for thought as could be, and equally as unfit for action; and this rendered him melancholy, apprehensive, humorously, and willing to make the best of everything as it was, both from tenderness of heart and abhorrence of alteration. His understanding was too great to admit an absurdity; his frame was not strong enough to deliver it from a fear. His sensibility to strong contrasts was the foundation of his humor, which was that of a wit at once melancholy, and willing to be pleased. He would hear a superstition, and shudder at the old phantasm while he did it. One could have imagined him cracking a jest in the teeth of a ghost, and then melting into thin air himself, out of a sympathy with the awful. His humor and his knowledge both, were those of Hamlet, of Moliere, of Carlin, who shook a city with laughter, and, in order to divert his melancholy, was recommended to go and hear himself. Yet he extracted a real pleasure out of his jokes, because good-heartedness retains that privilege when it fails in everything else. I should say he condescended to be a punster, if condescension had been a word befitting wisdom like his. Being told that somebody had lampooned him, he said, very well, I'll Lamb-pun him.

His puns were admirable, and often contained as deep things as the wisdom of some who have greater names. Such a man, for instance, as Nicole, the Frenchman, who was a baby to him. He would have cracked a score of jokes at him, worth his whole book of sentences; pelted his head with pearls. Nicole would not have understood him, but Rochefoucault would, and Pascal, too; and some of our Englishmen would understand him better," &c.

It is but just, however, to apprise the reader, that our author is a Universalist in religion, and a "good-hater" of everything American.

14.—LATE BOOKS AND PERIODICALS.

Banker's Magazine, Boston.—We have not received our numbers of this work for several months back, and beg to remind Mr. Homans, the Editor, of the fact. It is a monthly of 84 pages, at the rate of 85 per annum. This magazine has been published several years, and is now, or ought to be, in the hands of every banker or banking-house in the Union. Among the articles which

appear in it are most elaborate productions of Humboldt, McCulloch, Marchison, Gilbart, Whipple, etc. Many large foreign works on banking are re-published in this magazine.

Silliman's Journal, New-Haven.—Published every two months, in numbers of 152 pages, each at \$5. Contents—January, 1851

—American and Foreign Building Stones, by Professor Johnson; The Electric Current, by J. H. Lane; Meteorites, by Professor Shepard; Numerites and Planariae, by Mr. Girard; Emory, by J. Lawrence Smith, M.D., Galvanic Current, by A. B. Gould, Jun.; Miscellaneous Notices, by J. H. Bailey; Time required to raise Galvanic Current, by Professor Page; Phenomena of Polarized Light, by Professor Page; New Species of Fungi, by Rev. S. Berkley and Rev. M. A. Curtis; Carapax of Crabs, by James D. Dana; Phosphate of Iron, Manganese and Lethia, by W. J. Craw; Phosphate of Iron, by J. D. Dana, Editor. The following fifty pages are devoted to new discoveries in chemistry, physica, geology, mineralogy, astronomy, meteorology, practical science and bibliographical notices.

Pictorial Field Book of the Revolution—Nos. 9 and 10—New-York—Harper and Brothers.—We know of no language strong enough to express our admiration of the manner in which this work is executed by the publishers. The paper is of finest quality—print beautiful and large, wood cuts, which are very numerous, superb. The engravings are by B. J. Lossing, Esq., and the whole will be completed in about twenty numbers, of 48 pages each. Price 25 cents a number. New-Orleans: J. B. Steel.

Appleton's Mechanics' Magazine, No. 1.—The Messrs. Appleton, who are the largest publishers or sellers of scientific works in America, have wisely set about this magazine, so valuable to the engineers and practical men of the nation. The illustrations are very fine. Terms \$3 per annum; 25 cents each. New-Orleans: J. B. Steel.

History of Pendennis, No. 7—Alfred the Great—Darius the Great.—From the press

of Harper & Brothers. Alfred the Great and Darius are parts of a series of neat and handsome volumes, with fine illustrations, by Mr. Abbott. Price 60 cents each. Among the volumes already published, are Elizabeth, Charles I., Hannibal, Alexander, Cesar, Xerxes, &c.

Report on the Sanitary Commission of Massachusetts.—This is the work of that able, laborious and indefatigable statistician, Lemuel Shattuck, Esq., of Boston, and is a large volume of 500 pages. We shall take occasion, before long, to review it more at length, but meanwhile recommend it to the attention of Boards of Health, and statesmen all over the Union.

Mr. Shattuck is understood to be the author of the plan for taking the present census of the United States. He has made public health and statistics of human life a subject of observation, and of careful scientific study for many years. He has collected very many publications, and written some valuable works and statistical papers connected with the subject. He has been familiar with the laws and regulations for the promotion of public health, their practical operation, and their reported results in Europe, as well as in our own country. Although he is not a practicing physician, yet there are few, if any, in the ranks of the medical profession, more familiar with matters of this kind. The sanitary and statistical departments of his library are probably more extensive, and contain more rare and valuable works than any other private library in the United States, especially in regard to the literature elicited in the agitation of the great questions of Sanitary Reform, which have recently engaged so much public attention in Europe.

Afleck's Southern Rural Almanac and Plantation Garden Calendar.—Wishing, as we do, well to every enterprise tending to the literary independence of the South, we give a warm welcome to Afleck's Almanac. Though of moderate pretensions and at a very cheap rate, it contains an immense number of facts valuable to the planting community.

The Gallery of Illustrious Americans, contains the portrait and biographical sketches of twenty-four of the most eminent citizens in the Republic since the death of Washington. Published from Brady's Gallery, 203 Broadway, New-York. By John Wiley, G. P. Putnam, D. Appleton & Co., C. S. Francis & Co. New York, 1850.

We have received the sketches of Clay, Webster, Wright, Taylor, Fillmore, Fremont, Prescott and Scott, and would thank the publishers to send us Calhoun and the others as they are published, so that we can have the work complete. The work is edited by C. Edwards Lester, our late consul at Genoa, who is assisted by other literary gentlemen. The portraits are generally faithful—that of Calhoun is the best we have ever seen of him. The work is printed on large and distinct type, on stout fine paper, and does great credit to all who are engaged. We recommend it to the public patronage, and trust it may receive all the encouragement it so richly deserves. We shall continue to notice the numbers as they appear, and recommend them to our friends.

The American Union and Republican Review, edited by L. & R. Austin, Jackson, Miss. This is a periodical of limited size, intended monthly, as the organ of the party opposed to action on the part of the South. When we have examined it thoroughly we shall be prepared to speak of the merits of the papers included.

Dr. Jarvis on the Insanity of the Sexes, Boston. The Doctor has presented an immense array of facts upon the interesting question of insanity as it affects the different sexes. Having found that no general rule could be adduced applicable to all countries and times, showing that one sex was more susceptible than the other, he makes some remarks, which we extract:

"The temperament of females is more ardent, and more frequently nervous than that of the males. Women are more under the influence of the feelings and emotions, while men are more under the government of the intellect. Men have stronger passions and more powerful appetites and propensities. Women are more hopeful and confiding, es-

pecially in what regards the affections, but they are less given to sensual indulgence. Men are more cautious in regard to matters of a social nature. But in regard to the affairs that affect the intellect, they are more bold and less cautious. Their intellectual functions are often exercised without reference to the power of the physical organ. Their inclinations and propensities, of whatever nature, intellectual, moral, or physical, are more powerful and uncontrollable, and they are more likely to overwork and disturb the brain than women.

Women are more calm and patient, they endure difficulties and afflictions better than men, who are more impatient and uneasy under trial. It is said, and with truth, that women sooner yield, but being elastic, recover again; while men, being more firm, resist longer, and then break without power to rise again as readily as females do when they are cast down."

We acknowledge our thanks to Dr. Jarvis, for his nomination of us as an honorary member of the Massachusetts Statistical Society, and for our election to that honorable post.

Memorial to the Congress of the United States, announcing a new method of refining gold. A brief account of the invention and importance of a new method of refining gold.

We are indebted to the author, Professor McColloh, late of the U. S. mint, and now of Princeton College, for the above pamphlets. Speaking on the improved method, he says:

"If used in the mint, my new method would refine in a week the quantity now refined in a month: and it would, therefore, save to the United States three-fourths of six per cent. interest, or four and a half per cent. on the amount of money now kept in the mint for the accommodation of depositors, by advances upon their bullion, before the same can be refined; which amounts to \$2,500,000, upon which, the saving of four and a half per cent. interest, would be \$112,500. But even this fund is found to be insufficient to meet the demands of the dealers in bullion, constantly coming in in increasing quantities from California, and it will probably become necessary for the president to increase it to the extent of one or more millions of dollars, under the provisions of the act, approved May 23d, 1850, authorizing him to make such advances to an indefinite extent."

NEW SUBSCRIBERS AND DEBTORS.

The gentle hint we gave in our last, that our friends, "dyed in the same wool" with ourselves, have not been sufficiently active in setting our work agoing in their neighbor-

hood, has been met by a prompt response from many, who have sent into us liberal lists of new subscribers, and the remittances. This is comfortable, and almost makes us feel disposed to "complain no more forever." Many more friends shall stand by us in the hour of need. It is our faith.

We are not an incorrigible dun—but then,—very large amounts are still due to the Review, sometimes for several years. Come, gentlemen, don't wait for agents who tax us sorely, and trouble you much—adopt the mail, and we will acknowledge receipts upon the cover! Never man more grateful for promptness than we are. To you this is "something, *nothing*," but its absence makes us "poor indeed."

LIBRARY EDITION OF THE REVIEW.

Our work is intended for libraries, private and public, and is therefore laboriously prepared, and will be even more valuable in the future than now. Therefore, we wish every subscriber to preserve his numbers." If returned to us, we will give in exchange bound sets, with a moderate charge for binding. By the new postal arrangement, bound volumes can go by mail at small expense. We can generally supply deficient numbers.

We again solicit orders for our sets, and have some on hand handsomely bound. There are three series.

1st series, beginning Jan., 1846, 10 vols., \$35.
2d series, " July, 1849, 4 vols., 12.
3d series, " July, 1850, 2 vols., 6.

We will give any other number of the Review, or the value, or any other book ordered of the same value, for copies of the February Number, 1848, and August Number, 1849, both of which are nearly exhausted in our office. Those who have only broken sets, will, in addition, confer an obligation by sending these numbers. We will give volumes X. and XI. for volumes I. and II.

Orders on factors, payable now, or in the fall, at any Southern city, received.

* The first series is splendidly bound—2 volumes to the year—10 volumes in all, of 500 to 700 pages each. We have scarcely more than a dozen sets of this series remaining, complete, which cannot be had after a few weeks, and which are becoming every

day more valuable. They will, probably, be taken by public libraries. We will deliver them free of expense in any southern city. A minute Index of the whole ten volumes, neatly printed, will be furnished to purchasers—free of expense. The volumes are illustrated with Maps and Engravings, and are complete upon all subjects relating to the resources and progress of the South in every department of industry.

TO PLANTERS, MERCHANTS, CITI- ZENS, ETC.

SUGAR ESTATES FOR SALE, &c.

The attention of planters is called to the notice at the head of our advertising columns, of two valuable *Sugar Estates*, for sale in Louisiana, upon accommodating terms. Persons desirous of further information in regard to them, will please address the Editor of the Review, *post-paid*.

We also recommend the advertising department of Estates to the attention of the *Planting Community*, as the Review, circulating now extensively throughout all the Middle, Southern, and South-Western States, reaches a larger number of Planters than can be effected in any other mode. Our terms are reasonable, and where we act as agents in effecting sales, the remuneration exacted will be very moderate. It is our intention to call *editorial* attention to the advertisements, and to make the Review an index of all Estates in the market.

To Merchants, we recommend the *Advertiser*, as a mode of reaching their country customers. We intend to admit only the cards of a few of the best houses in each branch of business, as we have done in the present number. It will be an interesting directory to our friends, and of much value. The plan contemplates names in all of the other Southern cities, and it is in charge of Mr. Pratt, who has published several important business directories at the North.

The *Advertiser* will, also, be invaluable to *Southern Schools and Colleges, and Teachers, Southern Watering-Places and Hotels, Southern Manufacturers and Agricultural Mechanists, Country Lawyers, &c.*

Terms, \$5 to \$100, according to space occupied, and time. As moderate as the local papers. Our circulation extends throughout all the Southern and Western States and Cities. Address, *post-paid*.

SOUTHERN PLANTATION ADVERTISER.

1.—Sugar Estate for Sale.—Louisiana.

Situated on Bayou Block, (Parish Tensas,) 6 miles down the mouth. It contains about 3,600 acres, of which more than one-third is arable, and the rest abounding in accessible timber.

It is complete in all respects for the residence and business of a planter. It lies on both sides of the Bayou, (which are connected by a valuable toll-bridge,) having a dwelling house on either side—24 double cabins, besides shops, &c., and one of the best sugar mills and sugar houses (of brick) in the state. In point of climate and soil, it is second to none, and vessels drawing 9 feet come to the sugar house.

There are about 600 acres cleared, of which not less than 300 are now, or will be during the winter, planted in cane.

Under good management, it ought to give an average yield of 500 hds., to 50 hands. Between 80 and 100 negroes might be had with the place, amongst them some most valuable mechanics.

TERMS.—For the plantation only, \$75,000—one-fourth down, the balance bearing interest, in four annual payments.

* On the part not suited for sugar, was thought, by Col. Williams,¹ (late Chief Engineer of the state,) peculiarly adapted to rice.

Address, J. D. B. De BOW, New-Orleans.

2.—Plantations in Mississippi.

493 acres, 370 being in cultivation, creek bot tom, little worn, good residence and out houses, eight miles from Jackson. A woodland tract adjoining is also for sale. Terms cash, or 2-3 in one and two years, with interest. Address

JOHN T. SORSEY.

1,200 acres, 500 in cultivation, near Pontotoc, Miss.—good dwelling and plantation houses, orchard and gardens, and stock range. Terms easy. Samuel L. Watt, Pontotoc.

3.—Cotton Plantation,

Situated on Red River, about five miles below Natchitoches, containing 2690 arpents of land, of which some 800 acres are cleared and in cultivation; having a good Ginhouse, Stables and Negro Cabins, nearly new, with an indifferent dwelling house. Together with about 100 NEGROES, old and young, the most of them very likely, of which about 60 or 65 are working hands; stock of Mules, Horses, Cattle and Hogs, and also implements of husbandry, as they stand—the whole being very ample and sufficient for the proper cultivation of the place. About one-half of the tract consists of bottom land, and very productive; the balance of high and dry piney woods, interspersed with oak, hickory, etc. The crop of this year is estimated at or near 450 bales of cotton, and corn enough for the supply of the plantation, and about 1000 bbls. to spare.

This property is offered for sale in order to close a joint concern, one of the owners being dead, and will be sold in block, as it now stands. Inquire of

CHAS. A. JACOBS,
30 Bank Place, New-Orleans.

4.—Plantation near Trinity, La.,

Lying half a mile from the banks of Black River. Said place contains 320 acres, 200 of which are above the high water of 1844, and are in a high state of cultivation.

The improvements embrace a large dwelling house, large brick cisterns, cabins, and other necessary out houses, all in good repair. A lib-

eral credit will be given to a purchaser. For particulars apply to Dr. A. R. Kilpatrick, near the premises. BULKLEY & HOLT.

New-Orleans, Nov. 22, 1850.

5.—Orange Island Plantation, La.

This large and superb Plantation is situated nine miles west of New Iberia, fronting fifty acres on Lake Poignard, and is in the parish of St. Martin's, Attakapas, La. It contains upwards of four thousand acres of land, including seven hundred acres of wood land, and is all arable, and well fenced and ditched. The field in actual cultivation for cane, corn, &c. &c., is six hundred acres, and there will be seed cane sufficient to plant five hundred acres.

The pastures are fine, and capable of supporting four thousand head of cattle, winter and summer; being contiguous to a luxuriant range of salt water marsh, which supplies grass in abundance during winter.

It is one of the best stock farms in the State, and as a sugar plantation, cannot be surpassed, and with a trifling expense, eight hundred acres can be irrigated from the lake, so as to make it well adapted for the rice culture.

The brick dwelling-house is delightfully situated on the brow of the hill, eighty feet above the level of the prairie—has a beautiful sloping lawn in front, with an orchard of sweet oranges, figs, peach and plum trees, and from the rear, down to the lake, a splendid grove of live oak and magnolia.

Also a vegetable garden, brick kitchen, two frame buildings for servants' rooms, pigeon house, poultry houses, and dairy; two large corn cribs, stable for eighty horses, with the necessary appurtenances; there is also a good sugar house, with horse mill, boiling room, cisterns, purgery, coolers, juice vats, sufficient to make four hundred hogheads sugar, overseer's house, seven double cabins, black-smith's shop, &c., all well arranged and in good condition.

The water of the lake is clear as crystal, and rests on a white sandy bottom—it is excellent for drinking, and is supplied by thousands of little fountains, springing up continually.

It forms a crescent, three miles long, and one and a half miles across—it abounds with delicious trout, and with almost every variety of fine fish; and on the plantation is found in abundance all kinds of game. The situation is exceedingly beautiful, and as salubrious as it is beautiful.

In short, for the combined advantages of rich soil, inexhaustible pastures, picturesque and lovely scenery, delicious fish, and fine game, and refreshing sea breezes, this plantation is unparalleled.

The plantation, with the improvements, will be sold with or without the following articles, viz.: thirty slaves, of different ages and sexes; two thousand head of horned cattle, principally females: twenty yoke of oxen; forty gentle mules, broke to the plough; thirty young mules; seventy creole mares, cane carts, ploughs, harness, hoes, spades, axes, skiffs, sail boats, &c. &c.

Also a large number of BLOODED stock, of distinguished pedigree.

If the purchaser declines any of the above articles or slaves, the proprietor will retain them, and deduct the price.

TERMS—cash. \$15,000

Assume Citizen's Bank debt, payable in installments in 30 years. \$16,000

Balance in one, two, and three years, without interest. For entire cash, a liberal discount will be made. For full particulars and prices, address, post paid, J. D. B. De BOW,

2 Exchange Place, New-Orleans.